GAZETTEER OF INDIA

MADHYA PRADESH

EAST NIMAR

MADHYA PRADESH DISTRICT GAZETTEERS

EAST NIMAR

By

P. N. SHRIVASTAV

DISTRICT GAZETTEERS DEPARTMENT
MADHYA PRADESH
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PREFACE

EAST NIMAR is one of the most important districts of Madhya Pradesh. It has a rich historical past. The District bears traces of Palaeolithic man and microlithic objects. Omkar Mandhata is a place repeatedly figuring in the *Puranic* lore. Situated on a picturesque site, it is one of the 12 *jyotirlingas* in the country. The Hindu and Jain temples at Omkar Mandhata add to the beauty and the sanctity of the place. Burhanpur was among the important cities of Medieval India. It was the seat of the Faruqis and also of an important *subah* under the Mughals, where heir-apparents or more efficient Princes like Daniyal and Parviz were posted. It was here that Khushrav lost his life, Khurram lost his beloved spouse Mumtaz Mahal in whose memory the grandest mausoleum was built at Agra, and Alamgir held the office of the Viceroy of Deccan for almost a decade. Commanding the view of a rich landscape, this town was once famous for its handicrafts, textiles and decorative arts. Asirgarh, one of the most impregnable forts in the country, controlled in medieval times the one and the only western gateway to South. Owing to its strategic position, it was a scene of many momentous battles fought for domination by the Rajputs, Muslims, Marathas and the British. In recent times, Nepanagar with its Newsprint Mill has found a place in the industrial map of modern India.

Several personalities, associated with East Nimar, have left their impress on the life and thought of the people It was Asa Aheer who built the historic fort of Asirgarh. Saint Burhanuddin of Daulatabad rests in a tomb at Burhanpur. King Adil Khan II laid the foundation for the industrial prosperity of the region by encouraging arts and craft. Pindaris like Chitu and Dulla ravaged the District for many years till their extinction. Singaji, the Sixteenth Century saint and a popular Nimadi poet, was an outstanding holy figure. Tantiya Bhil, the Robin Hood of the region, was a figure inspiring awe and respect both, in his role of a persecutor of the unjust and the friend of the poor. Coming to the post-World War II period, one notices the finest political journalism in Hindi which owed its inception and flowering to the efforts of Makhanlal Chaturvedi. Affectionately called Dada, Makhanlal Chaturvedi was the doyen of Khandwa in the field of political, literary and public life of the town The cine-loving proletariat proudly asserts that the stellar luminary Ashok Kumar hails from their District. In brief, East Nimar has a tradition rich in its versatility, range and quality.

A word about the history of the preparation of Fast Nimar Gazetteer. The preliminary work on East Nimar was carried out during 1959-62. Editing was

taken up in 1963-64, and finalized drafts were ready by 1965. Copies of the final draft were sent to the members of the State Advisory Board for Gazetteers and Government of India on 7-1-1966. A meeting of the State Advisory Board was held on 5-8-1966 to consider and approve amendments. Press-Copies were sent to the Government Press on 21-9-1967.

However, the printing history of East Nimar Gazetteer has had a chequered career. To begin with, the Government Press was unable to take up the Printing work owing to the heavy rush of government business. Realising the predicament caused by the accumulation of ever-mounting back-log of prepared gazetteers, as also the strict limitations imposed on the Government Press by circumstances beyond their control, the State Editor, with some effort and inevitable delay, obtained the Government sanction for entrusting the printing work of gazetteers also to private presses of repute. Thus, the Press-Copies of the East Nimar Gazetteer were passed on to the MODERN PRINTERY, LTD., Indore, on 31-7-1969.

It will be gathered from the perusal of this brief account that the various processes connected with the preparation of this particular gazetteer—from collection of data and first draft to the final printing—spread over a span of ten years. Much water has flown down the Ganges during this long period. The Second and the Third National Five Year Plans have come and gone Many economic schemes were put on the anvil. Achievements were as spectacular as the short-falls were disheartening. In this break-neck race of developing economy of a Welfare State with a socialistic pattern, the Government and the voluntary activities assume an ambitious scale, and the Gazetteers Department suffers from an inherent, standing handicap. It can never hope to keep pace with the hectic onward march of a progressive district. By the time a single material fact pertaining to the District is collected, examined, passed through the multi-staged sieve of refinery, its essence digested, and finally studded in the frame-work of the larger context, so as to present a comprehensive and coherent picture, much time and energy have to be expended by Departmental experts adept at various technical processes inevitable in the preparation of a gazetteer. As against one such fact duly assimilated, a legion of them come swamping in a perennial stream. It is a tale with a beginning but no end. The bewildered State Editor is put on the horns of a dilemma—whether to go on incorporating the fresh material and revising the draft accordingly *ad infinitum*, or to cry a halt somewhere.

The problem would be a little less acute if the final draft were to see the light of the day immediately. But in the very nature of things, this is impracticable. The State Advisory Board and the Government of India have to examine the prepared draft very carefully and send their valuable comments, which in their own turn have to be suitably incorporated. It is then that the Press-Copy is prepared. Last, but not the least, the printing often takes up God's own good time. In the circumstances, therefore, it is not unnatural that a reader may find the data none too up-to-date.

This apologia is given here to explain the unavoidable situation rather than to gloss over the apparent lacunae, lest there is imperfect understanding of the whole complex machinery of work involved in the preparation of a gazetteer. In the present case, an attempt has been made to incorporate, up to a point, the maximum volume of data more or less commensurate with the draft. Obviously, therefore, the additional information, received at a late stage and requiring wholesale and multiple changes in the text, had to be left out with a heavy heart in order to obviate further delay in publication. The State Editor is only too conscious of short-comings in the present gazetteer. His plea for reader's indulgence is based merely on the ground of exigencies of the situation.

The State Editor acknowledges in full measure the value of R. V. Russell's old Nimar Gazetteer, published in 1909, which is bound to be the very basis and backbone of all such subsequent works on East Nimar. The fact that the Man has reached the Moon cannot detract from the greatness of Prometheus. Future can never be free from the debt of the Past. Shri V. S. Krishnan was the State Editor under whose inspiring guidance the preliminary drafts were compiled.

Shri S. D. Guru, Assistant State Editor, not only proved himself to be a veritable alchemist so far as the present shape of the History Chapter is concerned in its cohesion, completeness and style, but also ably executed several important post-finalisation stages of work, such as, printing, photographs, etc., Dr. R. K. Jain, Assistant State Editor, carefully scrutinized Economic Chapters and supervised the preparation of Press-Copies. Shri Pramod Kumar Bhatnagar, Editor, besides drafting and editing the Chapter on People brilliantly, was Officer-in-Charge Printing. Shri M.M. Muley, Editor, read through the Press-Copies with his usual efficiency so as to ensure uniformity in printing style.

Shri R. R. Jain, now Editor, was entrusted with the enormous work involved in collection of data and writing most of the first drafts of the East Nimar Gazetteer. The officers connected with the compilation, scrutiny or editing of Chapters were: Shri S. D. Guru, Shri Vishnu Saran, Shri M M. Muley, Shri P. K. Bhatnagar, Shri R. K. Shrivastava, Shri M. P. Dubey, Shrimati Namita Sen, Shri K. Parmar and Shri R N. Sharma. Bibliography was prepared by Shri R. C. Munje. Shri S M. Rastogi was in charge of Appendices. Shri K. R. R. C. Nair and Shri Nawal Kishore prepared the Index. Shri Nawal Kishore also prepared the detailed Contents. Maps were prepared under the supervision of Shri N. P. Pandey by Shri Yaduraj Singh. Proofs were read, among others, by Shri R K. Nayak, Shri V. K. Jain, Shri K. S. Sharma and Shri A. M. Sharma.

The State Editor is grateful to the Archaeological Survey of India (Central Circle), Bhopal, Temple Survey Project (North) Bhopal, Veena Studio, Khandwa and the Tribal Welfare Department, Madhya Pradesh, for supplying a large set of fine photographs of monuments and temples and also those pertaining to the general life of certain classes. The Anthropological Survey of Government of India, Calcutta, supplied useful data for the chapter on People. The

State Editor is much obliged to Shri O. N. Vatal Controller, Government Printing and Stationery, Madhya Pradesh, for taking keen interest in the publication of this work. THE MODERN PRINTERY LTD., INDORE, was responsible for the excellent printing and get-up of the East Nimar Gazetteer.

The Gazetteers Unit, Ministry of Education, Government of India, was of immense help to us. The whole draft was minutely examined by the scholarly and efficient officers of the Central Gazetteers Unit. Their comments and suggestions were of a highly constructive nature, and the State Editor fully acknowledges the invaluable help he received from them. He is particularly grateful to Dr. P. N. Chopra, who as the presiding authority there, directed the whole course of measures to be adopted for presenting the East Nimar Gazetteer in its final shape.

Similarly, the State Editor is grateful to all members of the State Advisory Board who attended the meeting and made valuable suggestions and approved the final draft.

The State Editor does not feel guilty of committing any error of tautology when he says that he has received full measure of enthusiastic co-operation from all his colleagues. But for their devoted work, the Gazetteer would not have been presented as it is. The clerical staff, headed by Shri R. N. Mahobiya, rendered all help.

It is for the discerning eye to bestow the meed of praise, if there is any, and the discreet reader to take an indulgent view of short-comings.

P. N. Shrivastav

BHOPAL:
31st October, 1969.

(P. N. SHRIVASTAV)
State Editor.

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CHAPTER I

GENERAL

Introductory

Most of East Nimar District formed a part of the old administrative subdivision called Prant Nimar. The southern part of the District was included in the old territorial division of Talner, later known as Khandesh. The Prant Nimar is said to have comprised a sizeable portion of the Narmada Valley from the Ganjal river on the east to Hiranphal or the Deer's Leap on the west, at both of which places the Vindhya and the Satpura ranges come very close to each other and over look the Narmada.

In 1778 Peshwa divided the territory among Holkar, Pawar and Sindhia and retained only the small tracts of Kasrawad, Kanapur and Beria for himself. Later on the possessions of Peshwa and Sindhia came into the British possession and formed parts of this District.

Origin of the Name

To trace the origin of the name of the present District it is necessary first to find out the origin of the name "Prant Nimar" from which obviously most of the present District is carved. Nothing definite is known about the latter but it may be guessed that the old Prant Nimar was so called, because a place called Nimawar on the Narmada (now in Dewas District), was the capital of Prant Nimar. Nimawar is also mentioned by the famous Arab writer Alberuni, as Namavur.[1] The name Nimar happens to be spelt in certain books as Nimaur.[2] In course of time and by stages Nimawar, Namavur or Nimaur may have assumed the simple form, Nimar. As most of the territorial divisions derive their names from some one place of importance in the region, and as Nimawar was such a place of religion and administrative importance in the region,[3] the old Prant Nimar was called after that name, and the present Nimar District carved out of it retained the same. The author in this connection mentioned that "The name is supposed to be derived from *nim*, half, as Nimar was supposed to be half-way down the course of the Nerbudda, but in reality it is much nearer the mouth than the source of the river. Another derivation suggested by the Deputy Commis-

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1. E. C. Sachau, Alberuni's India, p. 203.
2. C. P. Administration Report, 1863-64, p. 9
3. Nimar District Gazetteer, 1908, p. 20.

sioner is from the *nim* tree which is noticeably common in the District"[1]. All these are conjectures about the derivation of the name of the District and for want of any other ascertainable material on the topic, it remains a subject-matter for conjectures only.

The present District of East Nimar includes only a small portion of the old Prant Nimar, which had nearly 9,000 sq. miles[2] (23,310 Sq. km.) of area. Prior to the States Reorganisation, i.e., on 1st November 1956, the district was officially known as Nimar District and formed part of the Mahakosal region of the erst-while Madhya Pradesh. The western part of the old Prant Nimar originally held by the Holkar, became a part of Madhya Bharat, when that State was formed in the year 1948. As on the reorganisation of States, Madhya Bharat region was merged in Madhya Pradesh, the western part of old Prant Nimar eventually became a part of Madhya Pradesh. This tract with its headquarters at Khargone, also happened to retain its old name of Nimar, and being to the west of the District of former Nimar of Mahakosal region, was named as Nimar (West) or West Nimar, while this District was officially renamed as Nimar (East) or East Nimar from 1st November. 1956.

Location and Boundaries

The shape of the District gives an appearance of a crown with its apex in the east and the base in the west. The District is in Indore Division of Madhya Pradesh. It is situated between 21° 5′ and 22° 25′ north latitude and 75° 57′ and 77° 13′ east longitude. The District as now composed, is bounded on the east by the Betul and Hoshangabad Districts of Bhopal Division, and Amaravati District of Maharashtra, on the south by the Districts of Jalgaon (East-Khandesh) Buldhana and Amravati of the Maharashtra State, on the west by West Nimar District of Indore Division, and on the north by Dewas District of the Indore Division.

Area and Population

According to the 1961 Census the total area of the District was 4, 132 Sq. miles[3] or 10,702 Sq. Km. and the population of the District was 685,150 persons. From amongst the 43 Districts of the State this District stands thirteenth in area and nineteenth in population; and out of the nine Districts of the Indore Division, it is second and fourth in area and population, respectively. The density of population in 1961 was 1,966 persons per Sq. mile.

Administrative History of the District

The present District as a compact administrative unit came into being through a long-drawn struggle waged by the British for annexation of territories from the then contending powers of Pashwa, Sindhia and Holkar and from the

1. Ibid, p. 1.
2. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p. 1.
3. Surveyor-General of India. According to State Survey Department the area is 4,125.84 square miles or 10,685 square kilometres.

Pindari free-booters. After the Maratha War of 1818, the region of Prant Nimar was divided amongst the British, Sindhia, Holkar, Pawar and some other petty chiefs. The British annexed the Pashwa's *parganas* of Kasrawad, Kampur and Beria as well as the fort of Asirgarh and a tract of 17 villages attached to it which was known as Tappa Satrabasti. In 1823 five *parganas* of Sindhias territory, namely, Dhurgaon, Barwai, Selani, Punasa and Khandwa, and later on in 1825, the other six, namely, Asir (excluding Burhanpur and three villages attached to it), Bhavgarh, Mundi, Atod, Bilora and Piplod were taken over by the British for management.[1] By the Treaty of 12th December, 1860, Sindhia transferred to the British Government the full sovereignty of all the *parganas* which were under British management since 1824-25.[2] In addition, Burhanpur city with *parganas* of Zainabad and Manjrod, till then under Sindhia's possession were also transferred to the British.[3] By the same Treaty, Chandgarh, a *pargana* of Nimar District situated north of the Narmada, and belonging to the Bhopal Agency was ceded to the British in the year 1862.[4]

After the acquisition of territories as above from time to time, there was an exchange of these territories. In the year 1864, the District which was till then under the Governor-General's Agent at Indore and was managed by British Army Officers, was eventually transferred to the Central Provinces[5] The headquarters of the District was also transferred from Mandleshwar to Khandwa.[6] Thereafter in the year 1868, the *paraganas* of Kasrawad, Dhurgaon and Barwah were transferred to the Holkar of Indore, in exchange of some of his lands in the Deccan.[7] According to the Census of 1872, the area of the District was 3,340 Sq. miles (8,651 Sq. Km.). In the 1891 Census, the area of the District was reported 3,357 Sq. miles (8,645 Sq. Km.). Thus, there appears to be an addition of about 17 Sq. miles. Futher addition to the area of the District was in 1896 when 571 Sq. miles (1,489 Sq. Km.) of the Charwa tract of Harda Tehsil, was transferred to Nimar and the new Harsud Tahsil was constituted.[8] In the Census year 1901, the area of the District was recorded as 3,929 Sq. miles or 10,171 Sq. km. In the year 1904, 38 villages with an area of 51 Sq. miles (132 Sq. km.) as well as 293 Sq. miles (759 Sq. km) of Government forest were transferred from Hoshangabad District to Harsud Tahsil. Subsequently, however, in the year 1908 an area of 48 Sq. miles (124 Sq. km.) from Harsud Tahsil was transferred to Betul. Next transfer of territory from this District was made in the month of January, 1950 under the Absorption of the Enclaves Order of 1950, promulgated by the Governor-General of India. By this order, 39 villages (involving an area of 95 Sq. miles or 247 Sq. km) of Khandwa Tahsil were added to Madhya Bharat State.

1. Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 41.
2. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p. 53.
3. Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 45.
4. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p. 53.
5. Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 41.
6. Nimar Settlement Report 1868-69, p 53.
7. Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 45.
8. Ibid, p. 51.

According to the 1951 Census, the area of the District was 4,142 Sq. miles[1] (10,728 Sq. km.) and in 1961 it was 4,132 Sq. miles[2] (10,702 Sq. km.). The District consists of three tahsils, namely, Khandwa, Burhanpur and Harsud of which the last was formed in the year 1896, mainly from the transfer of territory from Hoshanga bad District.

Sub-Divisions, Tahsils and Thanas

The District for the purpose of general and revenue administration has been divided into three Sub-divisions incharge of Sub-Divisional Officers which are co-extensive with three tahsils, viz., Khandwa, Burhanpur and Harsud. The tahsils have been further sub-divided into Revenue Inspectors' Circles and Patwari Circles for revenue administration. For police administration there are 15 police stations in three sub-divisions or tahsils of the District.

TOPOGRAPHY

Natural Divisions

The District lies, for the most part, on the uplands between the valleys of the two major rivers, the Narmada and the Tapti flowing parallel to each other from east to west through the District. The Hatti hill range borders and overlooks the Tapti valley in the south throughout its length in the District. The major natural divisions of the District correspond to the four distinct physiographic divisions, viz., (1) The Narmada valley (2) The Tapti valley (3) The main Satpura ranges and (4) The Hatti range or the southern flank of the Satpuras south of river Tapti.

The general height of the country in Nimar (East) is about 1,000 Ft. (304.8 metres) above Mean Sea Level but the elevations range from 618 Ft. (188.4 metres) in the bed of the Narmada in the extreme north-west to 3,010 Ft. (917.5 metres) at Pipardol peak of the Hatti range.

Narmada Valley

The Narmada flows through the northern part of the District roughly in an east-west direction. It forms about one-third of the northern boundary of the District. The two small tracts of Chandgarh and Selani are to the north of the river, on which side the District is bordered by the high cliffs of basalt, intersected by numerous deep and dark ravines and alternated by precipitous wooded hills, mostly alineated in a north-south direction. Among the streams joining the Narmada within the District from the north are Khari and Kanar (Lohar). These are the only perennial streams in the tract. The hills in the Chandgarh and Selani tracts rise conspicuously from 220′ to 500′ (61 to 152 metres) above the adjacent plains. The general height of Selani tract is about 750′ (228 metres) and that of Chandgarh is about 850′ (258 metres). The north-south chain of hills in Chandgarh and Selani tracts continue across the Narmada in the south. The most

1. Statistical Abstract of Madhya Pradesh, 1956-57.
2. Census of India, Paper No. 1 of 1962.

conspicuous of these is a sand-stone hill. It occupies the elbow formed at the junction of the Chhota Tawa and the Narmada and which rises about 500′ (152.4 metres) above the surrounding country. The southern tributaries of the Narmada flow towards north or north-west revealing the general slope of that part of Narmada Valley which lies within the District. The average height in the eastern part of the valley is about 900′ (274 metres) above Mean Sea Level, while in the western part it is about 800′ (243 metres) The plain country in the extreme west, below Mandhata, lies at a level of about 700′ (213.4 metres) above Mean Sea Level. The catchment area of the Chhota Tawa is at about 1,000′ (304 8 metres) above Mean Sea Level.

About 25 miles (40 km) south of the Narmada near Barur, a low range of foot-hills, commencing on the western boundary of the District, traverses the District towards the north-east until it abuts on the Narmada near the confluence of the Chhota Tawa river. The north-eastern part of this range divides the Narmada valley into two halves, viz., the western and the eastern. This range marks the southern limits of the low-lying valley of the Kaveri, a tributary of the Narmada in the west and the north-western limits of the Khandwa gap which, though undulting, lies at a higher altitude. The range also forms the watershed between the upstream of the Kaveri flowing north-east and the tributaries of the Chhota Tawa river, both of which ultimately empty their waters into the river Narmada.

The country lying north-west of this range, drained by the Kaveri river is mostly uneven and forested. The forests abound in the belts along the Narmada in the north and along the hill slopes in the south and south-east of the Kaveri-valley. There is an open area in the central part of the valley.

The eastern part of the Narmada valley, in the District, is largely drained by one of its important left bank tributaries, the Chhota Tawa which is so called below the confluence near Bhamgarh of the three streams, viz , Abna, Sukta and Bham River Machak and the Samdeni flow into the Narmada in the extreme north-eastern part of the District. The Chhota Tawa basin occupies the northern slopes of the Satpuras. The western half of the upper Chhota Tawa valley around Khandwa is a plain country with most fertile soil. Once the stream leaves the chain of hills fringing in the south, west and north, it passes through an open country without any significant hill or a forest block, though the surface is undulating. Minor rivers with banks covered with vegetation alternate with broad divides in this part. Some of the narrow valleys are comparatively fertile, where others are bare and stony

The eastern half of the upper Chhota Tawa valley is bordered by the Satpuras in the south-east which in this part range roughly in the direction from south-west to north-east. This country south and east of Chhanera up to the foot-hills is hilly and much cut-up by the channels of the meandering rivers and streams. Spurs of the Satpuras extend towards the north-west and gradually lose height

as they advance between the streams. The area is mostly rocky with thin soil in the depressions. The thick forests cover the slopes of the Satpuras, the foot-hills and the lower valley of the Agni. Forests with lesser economic value abound throughout the area. Some patches in the forests have been cleared for cultivation and have given rise to interspersed villages.

The lower Chhota Tawa valley is not a level plain throughout since spurs and low out-crops of the Satpuras appear right upto the Narmada in the north. Considerable areas are covered with forests, the clearings of which support numerous small villages with arable land. The hills and forests abound in most of the western bank of the Chhota Tawa river. The forested tract of Khandwa Tahsil south of the Narmada extends further east into Harsud Tahsil. East of the Chhota Tawa river the country around Harsud and Kasrawad is undulating and is covered with black soil of uneven thickness. Stretches of deep soil deposits in the depressions make good wheat lands. As one proceeds from here towards the Hoshangabad District boundary in the east, the relief becomes sharper and accentuated and the soils poorer and lighter.

Tapti Valley

The Tapti flows in a narrow valley between two parallel ranges of the Satpura in the southern parts of the District. It stretches for about 50 miles (80 km.) from east-north to west-south-west. The eastern half of the valley in the Manjrod and Nawtha tracts, is hardly 10 miles (16 km.) wide. The upper portion of Manjrod and Nawtha tracts was once fertile and well cultivated but now mostly covered with forests. The valley opens west of Samardeo Hill towards Burhanpur where it is about 20 miles (32.2 km.) wide. Here the soil is deeper and richer and form the most cultivated and densest populated area of Burhanpur tahsil.

Satpura Ranges

The Satpura (literally 'seven folds') is the name given collectively to a complex system of ranges and high lands about 600 miles (966 km.) long and 100 miles (161 km.) wide which lie to the south of the Narmada from the western coast of India to the Amarkantak hills in the east. This system includes ranges as far south as the Southern Maikal range or Saletakri hills. The various hill ranges, of which it is composed, are highly dessected by the erosive action of rivers and streams, and run approximately parallel to each other in an east-west direction. They are known by different local names. Earlier the name Satpura was applied to the hills which separate the Narmada and the Tapti valleys in East Nimar, east of Asirgarh hill and was styled as Satpura or seven sons of the Vindhyan mountains.

It was only during the early British regime that the whole series of hill ranges, about 600 miles (966 km.) long and, in their greatest depth exceeding a hundred miles (161 km.) from north to south, was known after the Satpura range of East Nimar.

The Satpuras, in this District, are bifurcated into two parallel ridges on either side of the Tapti valley. The main one, i.e., the northern branch of the Satpura, extends through the south-eastern part of Harsud Tahsil and more or less along the boundary between Khandwa and Burhanpur tahsils. It is only in the western extremity that this boundary passes through the northern foot-hills of the Satpuras, Asirgarh and other conspicuous peaks falling in Burhanpur, the southern Tahsil. The hill range west of Asirgarh hill is known as Rajpipla hills which extends up to the Western- Ghats in the west. The hills in the eastern extremity of the District belong to the Kalibhit range which in most of its parts falls in Betul District. Joining these two parts, is the water-parting line of low hills which may be called the Satpura proper, by which name the whole series of hills south of the Narmada came to be known and which provided the lowest and convenient pass-way between northern and the southern parts of India.

The Rajpipla in East Nimar is about 24 miles (38.6 km.) wide from north to south and above 1,250 Ft. (381 metres) from the Mean Sea Level. The line of more prominent hills rising up to 2,000′ (609.6 metres) from the Mean Sea Level extends like the two sides of a triangle with its apex in the Amba reserved forest, the western most limit of the District. A hill at this nodal point attains a height of 2,543 Ft. (775.1 metres) which is the highest elevation of the Satpuras in the District, north of the Tapti river. Other peaks rising to notable heights are the hills north of Amba, 2,244 Ft. (684 metres), the hill south-west of Itaria, 2,324 Ft., (708 metres), Gaira Barla hill, 2,338 Ft., (712.6 metres), Pipalphata, 2,183 Ft. (665.4 metres) and Asirgarh, 2,189 Ft. (667.2 metres). The waters of Sukta river have corroded and lowered the central part along its deep channels between the two prominent lines of Rajpipla hills. The width of the hilly area along the water parting line of the Satpura proper is about 11 miles at their base but in height they are above 1,250 Ft. (381 metres) from the Mean Sea Level. Hilly area is not continuous and there are several cols, through one of which the Bombay-Delhi railway line passes from south to north. After entering Harsud Tahsil, beyond Kulhardeo hill, 1,600 Ft. (487.7 metres), the Satpuras gradully gain height and form a continuous chain of rugged and much dissected hills which are nowhere less than 1,500 Ft. (457.2 metres) from the Mean Sea Level There are several hills rising above 2,000 Ft. (609.6 metres) from Mean Sea Level in the Kalibhit range of which the notable points are Kalibhit, 2,225 Ft (678.2 metres), Kelipahar, 2,476 Ft. (754.7 metres), Phepri, 2,137 Ft. (651.3 metres) and the hill 2,296 Ft. (699.8 metres) high east of Karwani village. Practically all the hills from Amba Reserved forest in the west to Genjal nullah in the east are covered with forests which are Government reserves and form a large belt occupying the northern part of Burhanpur Tahsil and the south eastern part of Harsud Tahsil.

Hatti Range

The southern branch of the Satpuras, divided from the main range by the Tapti valley runs close to the southern boundary of the District. It is locally

known as Hatti range, as it was formerly divided into four *hattis* or estates held by predatory Bhil chiefs. The boundary lies chiefly along the outer border of the range so that all of it except a few spurs, belongs to Nimar (East). The name *Hatti* is probably derived from *Hathi*, an elephant. The configuration of the range presents a series of long narrow valleys on the northern face, the watershed lying generally within a mile or two of the Maharashtra (Berar region) boundary. The declivities on that side are more precipitous. The valleys are flanked by eminences having generally flat tops, with narrow strips of culturable soil. The general elevation is about 2,000 Ft. (609.6 metres) above Mean Sea Level or about 1,200 Ft. (365.8 metres) above the plains of Berar in the south and the Tapti in the north. A few peaks on the extreme east reach the height of 3,000 Ft. (914.4 metres) which are the highest points in the district. Among the heights recorded are Pipardol, 3,010 Ft. (917.4 metres), Baingarh, 2,717 Ft. (828 metres), Sitoli, 2,479 Ft. (755.6 metres), Bhingar, 2,477 Ft., (755 metres) and Jitgarh, 1,959 Ft. (597 metres). The elevation of the range falls regularly towards the west, and at last it vanishes completely near the south-western boundary of East Nimar and East Khandesh District of Maharashtra State in the Tapti valley. The whole of the Hatti range is covered with thick forests nearly all of which are under Government reserves.

The Samardeo hill is a continuation of Hatti range, and detatched from it. It is more or less identical to Hatti range in respect of its east-west expansion with a steeper slope on the southern edge than on the northern face. The vegetative cover is equally good and similar in nature.

RIVER SYSTEM AND WATER RESOURCES

Drainage

The drainage of the District falls under the Narmada and the Tapti river-systems. The water-parting line between the two river-systems runs along the crest of the northern range of the Satpuras. The major portion of the District, north of this line, except the low tracts of Chandgarh and Selani, drains towards the north into the Narmada through the Chhota Tawa and the Kaveri rivers and a large number of small streams. The tracts north of the Narmada slope towards the south and the drainage is represented by the rills and rivulets joining the Narmada to the south. The area between the northern and the southern forks of the Satpuras in the District, mostly falling in Burhanpur Tahsil, is drained by a large number of streams descending into a hollow country (cyncline)[1] occupied by the Tapti. As the southern boundary of the district lies chiefly along the crest of the Hatti range, the southern slopes of the range drain into the Poorna, a left bank tributary of the Tapti river in East Khandesh District of the Maharashtra State.

1. As suggested by Prof. S. M. Ali of the University of Saugar the valleys of the Tapti and Narmada may be Synclinal valleys.

The two rivers, the Narmada and the Tapti contrary to all other principal rivers of the South Indian plateau flow towards the west, their courses being in the fault or rift-valleys[1] in the hard and compact mass of the Deccan plateau. The drainage of the major rivers in the District therefore, is typical to the rift-valley drainage. The narrow and straight alluvial valleys, the closely bordering ranges, the deep river-beds and numerous small tributary rills joining the major rivers more or less at right angles are all the characteristics of the Narmada and the Tapti river systems after these rivers have entered the rift-valleys.

The drainage in the denuded parts of the Satpuras and in the river valleys resting on it as in the Chhota Tawa valley, shows a dendritic pattern. This may be the result of a gradual water erosion for long time on a trap-country. The small plateau south-west of Mundi village is drained radially. The radial type of drainage is also represented by relatively high elevated area of Punasa which slopes around and from where the streams flow in all directions.

The volume of water in the streams and rivers depends upon their size which in turn corresponds to their catchment areas. The seasonal variation is great. The river-beds are mostly studded with rocks which due to difference in their hardness have helped in formation of water-pools behind the stretches of hardness. Falls and rapids have developed due to the removal of the relatively softer material after a line of hard rocks. The rocks have also caused, at places. the bifurcations or multiplication of the river channel. Mandhata, a river island between the two channels of the Narmada is well-known as a Hindu pilgrimage centre. There are other river islands, though of little importance. All these characteristics of the rivers have acted to the disadvantage in their economic utilisation. There is no line of navigation in the District except the ferry boats across the rivers at the terminus of thorough fares and the pilgrim centres. The deep channels, the high steeply rising banks and the fluctuating volume of water make it difficult to construct a dam across the river or to irrigate the country through the channels. There is an important water-fall in the District at Punasa, where the Narmada falls from a height of about 40′ (12.2 Metres) It may be said that this fall is exactly equal to the fall on the Narmada at Mandhar 25 miles (40.2 Km.) below Handia.

The Narmada

The Narmada is one of the seven most sacred rivers referred to in religious books, excluding the Rig Veda and the Sutras of Panini. This river was known to Ptolemy and the author of the Periplus as the Nommades or Nammadius, but not noticed by Magasthenes. The Reva Khand of the Skanda Puran has a chapter devoted to the story of the birth of the Narmada and of which it relates many legends. The river is stated to have emerged from the body of Lord Shiva, after the performance of great penance in the Riksha Mountain (a part of the Vindhyachal), whence it acquired its great virtues. There is also a mention that the river was created in the form of a lovely damsel whose beauty captivated the gods and

1. E H. Pasco, Manual, Geology of India, p. 22.

brought them all to her feat. Shiva laughed when he saw the enamoured gods and named her Narmada, or delight-giving in consequence. In Central India, the Narmada is held to be far more sacred than any other river. Even the Ganga is obliged to come and dip in once a year. She comes in the form of a coal-black cow and returns home pure white free from all sins. A mere sight of the Narmada is equivalent to a bath in the Ganga, and such are its virtues that all sins of the person who sees or dips into its water are removed. Religious fairs are held among other places, at Bheraghat, Gwarighat, Burman ghat, Omkareshwar, along its banks. The Narmada rises from the western flank of the Amarkantak plateau at about 22° 40′ North and 81° 46′ East in Shahdol District and enters the sea without forming a delta. below Broach, after a course of 801 miles. Down the Amarkantak hills the river passes through Mandla and Jabalpur Districts and further forms the boundaries between the Districts of Narsimhapur and Hoshangabad in the south and Raison, Sehore and Dewas Districts in the north. It enters Nimar (East) District after its confluence with Machak river at Panghat. After passing the western part of Chandgarh *pargana* of Harsud tahsil it is joined by the Chhota Tawa river from the south. Further it flows along the northern boundary of Khandwa tahsil except where it leaves selani *pargana* north of its course. For about 40 miles (64.4 Km.) after entering the District the Narmada flows between high alluvial banks, closely bordered by high cliffs of basalt and wooded hills on the north and a wild broken country on the south. The banks are intersected by numerous deep and dark ravines, the favourite resorts of tigers in the hot season. A sandstone hill about 500 Ft. (152.4 metres) high from surrounding country, occupies the angle at the junction of the Chhota Tawa and the Narmada. Throughout this distance the stream is much contracted and forms in the dry season a chain of pools alternating with rapid shallows. Opposite a place called Pemgarh is a curious back-water known as Kutra Kund, formed by a diagonal ledge of hard basalt and filled only when the river is in flood. Waste timber brought down by the current is whirled into this basin and stranded on sloping sand-banks at its head. At Dhairi opposite Punasa, the river tumbles through and partly over a broken ledge of hard basalt about 40 Ft. (12.2 metres) high; and then boils deep and sullen through a gorge of the same rock not more than 50 Ft. (15.2 metres) in breadth. Below the falls again, down to the island of Mandhata, the channel is tolerably open with a minimum of four feet (1.2 metres) of water at the deepest part in the hot weather. Immediately above Mandhata, the Narmada is joined by the small stream of the Kaveri from the south. Below Mandhata the hills and rugged ground recede and an open alluvial basin begins, upwards of a hundred miles (160. 9 km.) long which formed the kernel of old Prant Nimar. The banks in this part consist of sandy alluviam and are 60 Ft. to 70 Ft (18 to 21 metres) high. Below Mandhata the hills and the rugged ground that have up to this point environed the river recede, the Satpuras being 40 miles (64.4 Km.) to the south and the Vindhyas about 16 miles (25.7 km.) to the north.

The Tapti

The Tapti is also one of the sacred rivers o India. Amongst its various

names Tapti, Payoshni, Tapi, and Tapni, are more commonly known. All these names cannote one and the same meaning—the cooler of the *Tap*, meaning heat. It is said to have been created by the Sun to protect himself from his own warmth. It is believed to have risen from the sacred tank to Multai (*mul-tapi*, the source of the Tapti), on the Satpura plateau, but its real source is two miles distant (78° 15'E: 21° 48'N). It flows in a westerly direction through the Betul District, at first traversing an open and partially cultivated plain, and then ploughing into a rocky gorge of the Satpura hills between the Kalibhit range in Hoshangabad and East Nimar and Chikalda in Berar. Its bed here is rocky, overhung by steep banks, and bordered by forests. It enters East Nimar at a distance of 120 mile (193 km.) from its source and is still confined, for about 30 miles (48.3 km.) in a comparatively narrow valley. There are some small basins of exceedingly rich soil but they are mostly forested. The valley opens out a few miles above Burhanpur, the Satpura hills receding north and south. The towns of Burhanpur and Zainabad are located on either side of the river in the centre of the 20 miles (32.2 km.) wide rich alluvial basin. About nine miles (14.5 Km.) down the town of Burhanpur, the Tapti enters Khandesh where, it is joined by the Purna on its left bank from the hills of Berar. The river falls into the Arabian sea near Surat with an estuarine mouth like that of the Narmada.

The general direction of the river in Nimar (East) is from north-east to south-west. Its banks are too high, 30 Ft. to 60 Ft. (48 to 97 metres) for irrigation, and the bed is crossed at several places by ridges of rocks; hence, the river is not navigable except for about 20 miles (32 Km) near its estuary. The Tapti runs so near the foot of the Satpuras that its tributaries on the right bank are small but on the left bank the streams are of larger size. Among the tributaries Mona, Utaoli and Umraoti are the feeder streams of some size in the District which flow for some distance rapidly through the hills and valleys, and when they reach the open plain, cut deep channels through the sandy alluvial sub-soil.

The Chhota Tawa

This river is formed by the confluence of the three streams of Abna, Sukta and Bham near Bhamgarh, and joins after a course of 32 miles (51 5 Km.), flowing south to north through the Harsud Tahsil. It is called the Chhota Tawa to distinguish it from the more important river, Tawa in Betul and Hoshangabad Districts. Tawa signifies the flat bed of the river. The tributaries of the river are the Agni, the Piprar, the Gangapat and the Kala Machak on the right bank and Khurkhuri and another Piprar on the left bank. It is crossed by the Central Railway near Bilod.

The Abna

Abna rises in the south-west of the Khandwa Tahsil near Rajpura. It flows in an easterly direction through the Khandwa Tahsil, passing within a mile (1 6 Km.) of Khandwa, and joins the Sukta near the village of Kupasthal about six miles (9.6 Km.) further on The length of the river is about 33 miles (53.1 Km.) It is corssed by the line of Central Railway near Khandwa.

The Sukta

Sukta rises in the East Khandesh District and enters the Burhanpur Tahsil at its north-western boundary. After traversing it for about 15 miles (24.1 Km.) it enters the Khandwa Tahsil near Kalana, and returns to the north. It is joined by the Abna near Kupasthal, and thence flowing north-east falls into the Chhota Tawa near Selda. The name is probably a corruption of Sukh Tawa 'The dry Bed'. The river is crossed by the railway near Behar, ten miles (16.1 Km.) south of Khandwa. Its length in the District is about 50 miles (80.5 Km.). At Sukta on the border of Khandwa and Burhanpur tahsils is a, spring known as Bhimkund, near the river's bank.

The Kaveri

The Kaveri rises from the ridge diagonally traversing Khandwa tahsil. It is one of the sacred streams. It runs into the Narmada some little way above the island of Mandhata. Local belief is that the waters of Kaveri here at its real confluence do not mix with the waters of the Narmada, but flow across them and round the north side of the island, and mix with the waters of the Narmada below the island. The belief has thus attributed greater sanctity to this confluence than the real one and pious devotees take dip here and not at the real confluence.

Tanks

Lakes as such in the District are none, but a few tanks exist of which one at Mohghat situated at a distance of four miles (6.4 Km.) north-west of Khandwa town deserves mention. The tank covers an area of about 500 acres (202.3 hectares). This was formed by damming up a stream. Later on its catchment area was enlarged to nearly nine square miles (23.3 Sq. km.) by the construction of a canal four miles (6.4 Sq. km.) long to Ajainti. It is one of the water-supplying sources of the Khandwa town. The water is usually carried from it to the town by gravitation but when the Mohghat reservoir runs low, the water is pumped. The pumping station was constructed in the year 1887. The tank for last few years is being utilised as one of the fish-breeding centres of the district. Another tank of Punasa covers an area of 200 acres (80.9 hectares).

Springs

At Sukta on the boundary of the Burhanpur and Khandwa tahsils is a small water spring popularly known as Bhimkund. It is situated near the bank of the river Sukta. On the occasion of *Vasant Panchmi* festival a small fair is held near this *Kunda* (spring). People attending the fair carry with them the water of this spring to sprinkle it on the standing crops of their fields in the belief that the water has some resisting power for rust in wheat and smut in jowar.

Another spring takes its source in Harsud Tahsil of the District. It is called the Gomukh and is located at Gaurbrigiri. This spring flows all the year round and its water is utilised for the purpose of irrigation. It irrigates about 60 acres (24 3 hectares) of land in the vicinity.

There are other springs in the vicinity of Burhanpur town. These are among the eight subterranean conduits of the Mughal water works engineered between 1618 and 1650. Two of these underground springs, viz., Khuni Bhandara and Chintavaran carry ample fresh water all the year round to the municipal water works of Burhanpur and its suburbs, Lalbagh and Bahadurpur.

Under ground Water Resources

The depth of the sub-soil water level varies much. In some places it is 20′ to 30′ (about 6 to 9 metres) below the surface, while in some cases wells have been abandoned after having been dug to a depth of 50′ or 60′ (about 15 to 18 metres). There is still scope for the extension of irrigation from wells, but the poorer cultivators are deterred from launching out upon this form of expenditure on account of the uncertainty of the results. The surface of the underlying rock is so uneven that hard rock is sometimes reached at a depth of a few feet.

In general, in most of the wells, where the alluvium was the water bearing formation, there has been plenty of water supply. In the trap rock, the wells have about 5′ (1.5 metres) of water in summer and about 15′ to 20′ (4.5 to 6 metres) in winter.

GEOLOGY

The geology of the District has not been much studied but so far the following formations are known to exist within its limits.

Recent	Surface soil and newer alluvium
Pleistocene	Older alluvium
U. Cretaceous to Eocene	Deccan trap
U Cretaceous	Lameta beds
Late Precambrian	Upper Vindhyan System
Archaean	Bijawar series Granites and Gneisses

The Archaean rocks occur on either side of the Narmada river and include granites and gneisses and several outcrops of Bijawar rocks. The largest of these rocks occur in the extreme north-west of the District and in Harsud Tahsil. Of the gneisses, the granitoid variety prevails. The predominant variety is made up of large crystals of pink orthoclase, small crystals of plagioclase and quartz with chlorite and hornblende as the basic minerals.

The Bijawar formation consists of quartzites, horn-stone breccia and chert-banded limestones. The rocks are very much disturbed. The quartzites range from quartzitic sandstones in which the quartz grains are readily distinguishable by the naked eye to soft, unaltered sandstones which are sometimes conglomeratic. The limestone is usually banded with chert or hornstone or charged with tubular geode-like masses of this mineral. The third important constituent is a massive breccia, yellow or yellowish brown in colour consisting of a hornstone or jasper martix in which are disseminated fragments of milky white quartz.

The limestones are well seen near Billora where they show a dip of about 50 degrees to the west and rest on vertical or nearly vertical schists. At the junction of the Tawa river with the Narmada, the limestone presents a peculiar concentric structure with alternating layers or bands of siliceous and calcareous matter. Many of the concentric masses are of great size. The quratzite-breccia which occurs further south, comprises purplish jasper with angular fragments of quartzite. It was first thought to be of Bijawar age but the occurrence of similar breccia apparently inter-stratified with the Vindhyans in the Narmada region near by, indicate the possibility of a Vindhyan age. Some hornblendic schists such as those found above Mortakka, probably belong to an older group of rocks than the Bijawars.

Vindhyan System

Sandstones, shales and conglomerates of the Upper Vindhyan system form a narrow belt to the south of the Narmada river and these are faulted against the Bijawars along an east-west line marked by hematite breccia. The predominant rock is one intermediate between a sandstone and quartzite and is of a deep Red or purplish colour. The bedding in the sandstone is well marked; the separate beds are in general of small thickness and the rock is occasionally flaggy. The formation of quartzite appears to be due to a local metamorphism.

Near Billora between Mortakka and Mandhali, the Vindhyan rocks rest unconformably upon some upturned and denuded beds of the older schists. The sandstones and conglomerates that crop out near Bhorla, four k. ms. north-east of Punasa, are thought to be of Vindhyan age.

Some of the conglomeratic sandstones north of Bhorla, have very much the appearance of the Vindhyan rocks. However, as they are principally, if not entirely, composed of detritus derived from them, they have been assigned a Cretaceous age.

Lameta Beds

Lameta rocks are reported from the northern part of the District near Punasa and are represented by horizontally bedded gritstones and conglomerates. At Bhorla some conglomerates are noticed and in some places they are found associated with limestones. The exact relationship of limestones with that of the conglomerates is not yet clearly understood. The limestone is overlain by the trap in the north whereas in the south, the trap rocks about against them. As such, it is difficult to state whether they are inter-trappeans or intra-trappeans. However, at Pipra, four miles (6.4 Km.) south-west of the town the limestones are found to lie between the traps and intertrappean rocks. The conglomerates and limestones were at first thought to be equivalent to Bagh beds but are now considered to be of Lameta age.

Deccan Traps

Deccan traps occupy a large tract of the District and have been sub-divided

into (i) upper traps with volcanic and inter-trappean sedimentaries, (ii) middle traps with volcanic ash-beds and (iii) lower traps with inter trappean sedimentaries. The bulk of the plain country seems to be formed of the lower traps, consisting of trap-beds associated with inter-trappean sedimentary rocks.

With the exception of a fringe along the Narmada in the northern portion of the District and of the alluvial tract round about Burhanpur, the entire District is covered by the Deccan trap volcanic rocks. Generally, the trap-rocks appear to be horizontal in the District, so small in the neighbourhood of Khandwa as to be scarcely perceptible. Exceptions are seen in the Satpura hills west and south of Asirgarh. Beneath the Asirgarh fortress itself the beds are horizontal but in the low hills immediately to the west, there is a strong southerly dip, in places amounting to as much as 10 to 15 degrees. Along the line of the Tapti there is a marked southerly dip, though at a low angle and although the beds are horizontal over a large portion of the Hatti hills there is a dip of 5° to 10° to the north along their southern scarp. These, however, are exceptions as low dips of two to three degrees prevail generally throughout on the Nimar side of the Satpuras, i.e., Khandwa and Harsud tahsils. Beds of volcanic ash are a frequent occurrence and occasional strata of red bole are met with. With these exceptions the whole broad undulating plain of Nimar consists of various forms of basalt, usually more or less amygdaloidal. In the country between the Machak and the Tawa, large outliers of traps overlie the metamorphic rocks.

Pleistocene

The extreme north-east of the Khandesh plain formed by the alluvium (Pleistocene) of the Tapti river does not extend beyond the limits of the District of Nimar, and Burhanpur stands roughly in the centre of this alluvial plain.

Recent

Recent deposits of alluvium and surface soils cover the other formations in the District. These alluvial deposits are to be seen almost everywhere where there is a stream. The surface soil, as might be expected in a country mainly covered with trap, is usually that described as black cotton soil or the *regur*. The soil covering on highlands is so shallow as to be incapable of bearing crops or anything better than the growth of scrub vegetation which is generally found on it In low-lying lands along the beds of streams, the soil reaches a fair depth while a few stretches of cultivable land occur as on the Khandwa plain and the alluvial valley of the Tapti around Burhanpur. Besides *regur*, three special soils are recognised in the District. *Pandhar* which is a light coloured soil formed chiefly from the debris of old mud walls on the sites of old villages and impregnated with fertilising organic matter, *man* a yellow sandy soil of good depth with little fertility; and *thari* which lies besides a river and is enriched with silt. The last occurs only in the Burhanpur Tahsil.

SEISMICITY

The District lies in a seismic zone where light to moderate earthquakes are possible although it is a part of the stable Peninsular Shield of India known as 'Horst Block' and is outside the main earthquake belt of India, viz., the Himalayan Arc. Many earthquakes originating in the Himalayan region have also been noticed in the District but these were the sympathetic shocks causing only feeble to moderate tremors. The epicentre of the famous Satpura Earthquake of 14th March, 1938 was located very close to the west of the District (21° 32' N.-75°50'E) at which occassion the western part of the District came under M.M. intensity VII and the eastern part came under M.M. intensity VI. Possibly, the earthquake of the 25th August, 1957 with its epicentre in the east of the District at 22° 0' N-80° 0' E. was also felt in the District. Other earthquakes felt in the District are those of Rann of Kutch on the 16th May, 1819, Assam on the 12th June, 1897, Kangra on the 4th April, 1905 and Bihar-Nepal earthquake on the 15th January, 1934.

Economic Minerals

There are not many minerals of economic importance. The greater part of the District being covered with Deccan trap, there is little chance of the existence of minerals to any extent, other than those usually associated with rock, such as, jasper, agate, quartz and others. Some iron ores and manganese have been recorded in the north-eastern part of the District.

Iron Ore

The occurrences of iron ore in the northern portion of the Nimar District along the valley of the Narmada river, have been described by A. A. Jacob,[1] I. G. Meddlicott,[2] J. H. Blackwell[3] and T. Oldham.[4] The ores worked were almost invariably hematite, obtained from breccias occurring in the Bijawar formation near their junction with the Vindhyans or from surface accumulations of debris formed by the disintegration of the same rocks. P. N. Bose[5] has given a list of the principal localities where the ores were worked as Basnia, Billora, Chandgarh, Punasa, Kajheri, Kotra (near Bijalpur), Matni, Nandana, Nimkhera (or Lamekharia), Sontalia and between Khudia and Mohla. The ore from Chandgarh gave 63.4 per cent of iron and the ore at all these places is of limited extent and too poor in quality to be worked with profit. These deposits are not likely to be large.

Manganese Ore

Occurrences of manganese ores recorded at Chandgarh and at three other

1. Journal of Survey, Doublin, Vol. VI, 1854 and Selected Records of B. O. Government, N. S. Vols. IX, XIV, 1855.
2. Selected Records, Govt. of India, Vol. X, 1856 and Memoirs, Geological Survey of India, Vol. II, 1860.
3. Selected Records of B. O. Government, N. S. Vol. XLIV, 1871.
4. Record, Geological Survey of India, Vol. V, 1872.
5. Memoirs, Geological Survey of India, Vol. XXI.

places near Gohugaon are due to surface impregnation and replacement. The ores which consist of wad, pyrolusite, and psilomelane are of poor quality.

Dolomite

A deposit of dolomite occurs at Punasa and the outcrop is about 6.5 k. ms., in length. The stone is reported to be well-suited for lithographic purposes.

Fuller's Earth

At Bhogwan-Spiani, 16 k. ms., west of Sanawad railway station is a quarry of what is called Khari matti. It is apparently a form of fuller's earth and is used for washing by dhobies.

Clays

Clays suitable for making pipes are found in the Chandgarh reserve forest.

FLORA

The flora of the District belongs to the Southern Dry Deciduous type of the Indo-African botanical division. The major forests, most of which are under the management of Forest Department comprise the following belts.—

(i) The northern belt of a more or less compact blocks on both sides of the river Narmada, constituting the Punasa and Chandgarh ranges.

(ii) The continuous central belt on the northern branch of the Satpuras forming the two Kalibhit forest ranges, Nepanagar, Piplod and the two Asirgarh forest ranges

(iii) The scattered blocks of forests lying in between the two belts mentioned above and constituting the Khandwa and the Singaji forest ranges.

(iv) The southern belt on the Hatti hill range and the detached block of Samardeo forests on the Samardeo hills.

In addition to the above Government forests, there are small patches of forests scattered all over the District in the village areas which are of lesser economic value The areas devoid of natural vegetation of big tree species are the Khandwa plain and the Burhanpur plain in the Tapti Valley

The Government forests cover more than 41 5 per cent of area in the District. Out of the 1721 Sq miles (4,457 Sq. km.), 1,663 Sq. miles (4,307 Sq. km.) are managed as Reserved forests while the rest 158 Sq. miles (409 Sq. km.) of Ex-proprietary forests are managed as Protected forests. These have not yet been demarcated. Vegetation is also found in the water bodies of the District.

The tree crops in the Government forests in the District provide the best understanding of further classification of the forest types due to the various

factors influencing the conditions of growth and existence of species. The depth fertility of soil is the most vital factor of growth, dominating over the extent of rainfall and the geological formations The existence of species is possible after the deduction of fire, grazing and human (axe) frequencies and the influence of biotic factors, the wild fauna and the competing crops. The forests may be divided into the following types:—

(1) Kalibhit teak forests,

(2) General teak forests,

(3) Mixed forests,

(4) Anjan forests,

and (5) Salai forests.

The standard quality classes based on the maximum height of mature trees adopted in the District are:—

I. quality : over 90 feet (27.4 metres)

II. quality : over 70 to 90 feet (21.3 to 27.4 metres)

III. quality : over 50 to 70 feet (15.2 to 21.3 metres)

IV. (a). quality : over 40 to 50 feet (12.2 to 15.2 metres)

IV. (b). quality · up to 40 feet (12.2 metres).

These are all under the management of Forest Department and have been surveyed in sufficient detail.

The acreage under different types of forests in the Reserved forest area in the District as in the year 1948-49 was as shown in the following table.—

Type of forest	Quality II	Quality III	Quality IV (a)	Quality IV (b)	Total
Teak	11	13,948	84,022	1,51,022	2,49,003
Mixed	—	300	6,527	2,38,772	2,45,599
Anjan	—	—	4,248	57,787	62,035
Salai	—	—	—	—	3,65,456
Total	11	14,248	94,797	4,47,581	9,22,093
Blank, understocked, river beds and forest villages					1,54,248
Overlapping bamboo					62,120

Kalibhit Teak Type Forest

These are confined to the two Kalibhit ranges and in these forests *anjan* tree is entirely absent. The best teak (generally of third quality with occurrence

of patches of second quality) is found in the western half of the west Kalibhit range. The patches of third quality teak also occur scattered elsewhere but in other areas (eastern west-Kalibhit and most of east-Kalibhit) the predominating forest type is teak of IV (a) and IV (b) qualities. The teak percentage varies from place to place but the predominating percentage is about 50. Generally the growing stock is healthy but mature trees are rare.

Teak is capable of reaching a girth of five to six feet in the best areas but at present trees with the girth of over four feet girth are scarce. The trees of middle-aged classes occur the most. The density of growing stock is variable and only in a few instances the forest is fully stocked. Grass the absence of which indicates adequate density of trees, is rarely absent from the under-growth except in nullah areas and on the lower slopes of hills where the soil is sufficiently deep. In the east-Kalibhit and the western portion of west-Kalibhit range, grassy *maidans* are common as a result of old patch cultivation. The reproduction of teak and tinsa is good, and of most other species, satisfactory. Grass, morarphal (*Helicteres isora*) and sirali (*Nycetanthes arbortristis*) form the main under growth. Bamboos of good quality occur on the upper hill slopes, in the ravines and along some of the nullahs.

The species associated with teak are saj (*Terminalia tomentosa*), dhaura (*Anogeissus latifolia*), lendia (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), tinsa (*Oug. dalbergioids*), shisham (*Dalbergia latifolia*), tendu (*Diospyros melonoxlon*), salia (*Boswellia serrata*), moyan (*Lannea grandia*) khair (*Acacia catechu*), galgal (*Cocholspermum gosepium*), haldu (*Adina cordifolia*), bija (*Pterocarpus marsupium*), kulu (*Sterculia urens*). and ghatber (*Zizyphus xylophyra*).

General Teak Forests

These forests are in the Punasa and Chandgarh ranges, and the poor quality teak forests are scattered over other parts of the District, mainly in Khandwa, Singaji, parts of the Nepa, east-Asirgarh and Burhanpur ranges.

The best teak forests are confined to the Balware felling series of Punasa range and Machak. Mathni, Baranga and Kaneri felling series of the Chandgarh range. The forests in these two ranges (Chandgarh and Punasa) are very similar to each other being mostly of IV (a) quality with patches of third quality. The better quality teak occurs in the valleys leading to the Narmada.

The percentage of teak trees varies from almost poor to about 25 per cent. The bulk of the teak crop is in pole stage (upto two feet or 0.61 metres in girth) and good trees (upto three feet or 0.91 metres girth) are not common. The stocking varies considerably and only in a few riverine and nullah areas it can be said to be complete. Generally the density can be described as fair to moderate. Apart from the grass the main under-growth consists of nirgup (*Vitex negundo*), morarphal (*Helicteres isora*), sirali (*Nyctanthes arbortristis*) and dudhi (*Holarrhena antidysenterica*). The last named is found on rocky ground and is much noticed

in parts of the Chandgarh range. Bamboos occur in the riverine and damp areas and on some of the northern slopes of the hills. Poor quality teak forests are found in Chandgarh range in the four blocks south of the Narmada, parts of Chikaldaria, Bajrikind, Takly, and Biphal felling series, in the Chirakhan block of the Punasa range, part of Singaji range, in the Karond block of Khandwa range, Chandni felling series in the Asirgarh range and in widely scattered small patches of Samardeo and Semaria felling series of Burhanpur range. Of all these areas the blocks of Chanda, Karond block of Khandwa and parts of Chandni felling series of east and west Asirgarh ranges are most important. Teak in these areas is mostly of IV (a) quality with patches of IV (b) quality. The bulk of growing stock is in the pole and sapling stage (upto 2 feet to 2½ feet in girth and 40′-50′ in height). The teak reproduction is generally good The remaining areas contain mostly IV (b) quality of teak with fair reproduction.

In the Punasa, east Asir, Nepa and Burhanpur ranges teak with salai (*Boswellia serrata*), and other species like dhaura (*Anogeissus latifolia*), khair (*Acacia catechu*) and saj (*Terminalia tomentosa*) form upto only a third of the growing stock. In the Punasa and Chandgarh ranges the under-growth contains far less grass than in the Khandwa, Singaji, east Asir and Nepa ranges where grazing is much heavier. Bamboos occur in the areas bordering on the Narmada river.

Dhaura (*Anogeissus latifolia*), lendia (*Lagerstroemia parviflora*), saj (*Terminalia tomentosa*), tendu (*Diospyros melanoxylan*), salai (*Boswellai serrata*), khair (*Acacia catechu*), achar (*Buchanania lanznan*), mahua (*Mudhuca latifolia*), anjan (*Hardwickia binnata*), moyan (*Lannea grandis*), bahera (*Terminiha belerida*), aonla (*Emblica officinalis*), galgal (*Cochlospermum gossypium*), and kulu (*Sterculia urens*) are the chief teak associates.

Mixed Forests

The Nimar type of mixed forests are peculiar in the District and the types usually found in other parts of Madhya Pradesh in the east are rarely met with. This latter type occurs only in riverine and nullah areas. Standard khair (*Acacia catechu*) and salai (*Boswellia serrata*) are common in the Nimar mixed forests. The Punasa, Chandgarh, Singaji, Khandwa and parts of Burhanpur ranges carry mainly this type of forests, although these are also found scattered in the remaining areas of the District. These forests are very irregular both in composition and density. Owing to the dry conditions and shallow soil the mixed forests are of poor growth, mostly of IV (b) quali y except along the nullahs and in damp valleys where the quality rises to IV (a) and crop contains saj (*Terminalia tomentosa*) to a noticable extent, e g., in the Gogaipur reserve of west-Kalibhit range. The mixed forests have been heavily grazed and seeding reproduction is generally scarce. Coppice can be relied on if fires could be kept out of the area. The undergrowth, where heavy grazing does not occur, consists of grass, morarphan (*Helicteres isora*), sirali (*Nyctanthes arbor tristis*) and all (*Memosa rubicaulis*) in certain areas.

Anjan Forests

The distribution of *anjan* forests is rather difficult to be marked The forests include the areas with pure *anjan* type or *anjan* mixed mainly with salai (*Boswellia serrata*), khair (*Acacia catechu*), and dhaura (*Anogeissus latifolia*).

The *anjan* forests are confined to Balamrai felling series, Gashtal felling series and to the scattered areas of the Asirgarh range. They are also found in certain areas in the Burhanpur range and Samardeo felling series of Burhanpur range, as also in Kirgaon, Titgaon, Deulan, Nalwat and Bhoja felling series, the unworked blocks of the Khandwa range and in considerable areas in the Punasa and Chandgarh ranges. The growth of *anjan* trees is best in Punasa and Chandgarh ranges where they attain a height of 24.2 to 30.5 metres (80′ to 100 Ft.) and a girth of 1.8 to 3 metres (6′ to 10′). In other areas the height of mature trees rarely exceeds 50′ (15.2 metres). The remarkable difference in the dimensions attained by *anjan* in these two areas is most probably due to the difference in the geological formations. Most of the *anjan* trees are in a dense pole and sappling stages. The tree is spreading in many areas but its growth is marred in Khandwa range where there is heavy grazing. In the areas where grazing is absent or very light the seedling reproduction of *anjan* is satisfactory. It rarely coppices due probably to the scanty rainfall in the District. There is little demand for *anjan* in the market except for poles and fuel. The bark fibres are not used for rope making in the District as it is done in other States.

Salai Forests

Salai requires strong light. It has great vitality and it can stand fire and draught better than almost any other species in the dry tracts where it occurs. The *salai* produces from seed but the regeneration of *salai* is failure everywhere in the District which has created a problem because *salai* constitutes the raw material for Nepa Mills The growth by pollarding is not at all promising and the reproduction of *salai* by root-suckers has also proved a failure in areas near about Amba and Nepa.

Salai forest is typical of the drier southern half of the division (Asirgarh, Burhanpur, Mandwa and parts of Singaji ranges and the western portion of west Kalibhit range), where it is mostly found almost pure with little under-growth except grass. In other areas it is also of wide-spread occurrence, particularly on the hills: teak occurs as invasive under-growth in many places, associated with salai. Where salai forests are not found in pure stand it is associated with khair (*Acacia catechu*), galgal (*Cochlospermum gossypium*), moyan (*Lannea grandis*), dhaora and occasionally in Asir range, with guggul (*Balcamodandron mukul*). The characteristic salai type forests on the hill tops and dry slopes, usually give place lower down to teak and mixed forests. Generally the reproduction from seed is fair and though it coppices freely in small sizes, the coppice reproduction is doubtful. It has also been noticed that it reproduces itself from root-suckers but whether this kind of reproduction will solve the regeneration problem of salai

is yet to be seen. Bamboos are generally absent from these forests but they occur on some hill slopes in the south-east of Burhanpur range.

Pure Crop Stands

There are various other types of trees which stand pure in patches here and there. Among these bamboo (*Deandrocalamus strictus*) is the most important. The actual area occupied by bamboos in the district is 62,120 acres. Out of this 60,170 acres or 98 per cent of the area is included in the working plan by Shri Khisty and Mr. Gentle. The indigenous bamboo occurs on steep well-drained slopes and in ravines. Bamboos are not generally found on gentle slopes or on flat tops of hills. The best bamboos are found in the two Kalibhit and Chandgarh ranges to the north of the Narmada where they are also most plentiful at places, so dense as to exclude all other under-growth. Other than the above classification of the Government forests the flora of the District can also be described according to the localisation of the tree species.

Village Forests

The flora of the village forests is comparatively sparse and obviously of lesser economic value. The vegetation of the village waste and other areas not administered by the State Forest Department has lost its natural pattern of distribution and an impact of human element predominates as a factor in its classification. These may be described under the following heads.—

(1) Road-side trees and ornamental flowering plants,

(2) hedge-row plants,

(3) plants on the village rubbish-heaps,

(4) plants of village-waste,

(5) weeds and weedy-plants in the cultivated fields.

The trees planted by human beings provide their shade, fruits, leaves, barks, gums, and flowers. Sometimes the trees like *bargad* and plants like *tulsi* are also favoured for their sacredness conferred upon them for some reason or the other. The hedge-row plants generally have thorns on their trunk or branches, protecting the cultivators cornyard, vegetable gardens, fields and houses around which they are planted as a fence. Some other plants like *menhdi* are planted as fencing for thick growth of their branches and also for the little effort in their planting. The plants of village-waste and weeds are those natural species which have easily come out in prominence due to removal of their natural competitor species and which are hard to be removed from the fields.

The road-side trees and ornamental flowering plants in the District are kala siris or Indian cork tree (*Albizzia labbeck*, Benth), safed siris (*A. proeera*, Benth), maharukh or aral (*Ailanthus excelsa*, Roxb), bar (*Ficus benghalensis*, Lim), bakain neem (*Azadirachata indica*, A. Juss), nim (*Melia indica*), akasnim (*Millingtonia*

hortensis, Lim), shisham or sissoo (*Dalbergia sissoo*, Roxb), imli (*Tamarindus indica*, Lim), gulmohar (*Delonix regia*, Raf.), semal (*Salmalia malbarica*, Schoott and Endl.), coral tree (*Erythrina variegata*, Var), mango (*Mangifera indica*), sejuna (*Maringa pterygosperma*), tad (*Borassus flabellifer*) khirni (*Minusops hexandra*), gold mohar (*Poinciana regia orientalis*, Mers), gurhal, chinarose, jasud, juwa or juawa or jaswand (*Hibiscus rossasinensis*, Lim), jarul (*Lagerstoremia indica*, Lim), kaner with white flower (*Nerium indicum*, Mill), banganbilas (*Bougainvillea spectabilies*, *Willd*), bilaiti or gannd babool (*Acacia fernesiana*), baganbilas (*Bougainvillea glabra*), trumpet flowers or yellow elder (*Recoma stans*) and kaner with yellow flower (*Thevetia neriifolia*).

The hedge-row plants are thuhar with ribbed armed branches (*Euphorbia neriifolia*), thuhar with round unarmed branches (*Euphorbia tirucallia*), arni (*Clerodendrom phomoides*), nagphani and the prickly pear (*Opuntia dillenu*). The climbers commonly noticed on the hedge-row plants are *cucurbitaceoe* species such as kareia (*Momordica dioica*), turai (*Luffa acutangula*), dudhi (*Daenua extensa*) and kanja (*Caesalpinia bonducella*).

The hedges in the rains and cold season are covered as a rule with perennial and annual creapers, the commonest of which are numerous species of *Cucurbitaceae* such as *Kurela* (*Momordica dioica*), of which the large cucullate bract enclosing each male flower is very characteristic *turai*; (*Luffa acutangula*) with its long ten-ribbed fruit, and *Blastania garcini* characterised by its fringed bracts and red hammer-shaped fruit. Other climbers are *dudhi* (*Daemia axtensa*) with its pairs of curious echinate follicles, and *Hemidermus indicus* with smooth follicles. Kanja (*Caesalpinia bonducella*) is a large prickly climber not uncommon in hedges. Its seeds are used in Indian medicine for fever.

The plants most commonly noticed on every rubbish heap near the villages are brinjal (*Solanum melongena*), dhatura (*Fastuosa*) with purple flowers and dhatura (*Stramonium*) with white flowers, arand (*Ricinus communis*), bhindi (*Hibiscus esculentus*) and ambari (*Hibiscus carmabinus*).

Among the commonest plants of village-waste area are the two varieties of chakora (*Cassia sophera and Cassia tora*) A closely allied specie of chakora (*Cassia obtusifolia*) and aol. or tarwar (*Cassia auriculata Lim*), which are not commonly found in other parts of the Mahakoshal region of the State or in the south in the Berar region of Maharashtra State are found in the district in the waste lands. Aoli or turwar is found on the light soil around Burhanpur and along the Narmada river in the north. Siarkanta (*Argemone mexicanu, Lim*), a kanswith ovoid flower buds (*Colorophis gigantec*), aak with hemispherical buds (*Calotropis procera*) dhandhan (*Sarbania aculeata*), (*Alysicarpus rugosus*), (*Vicou auriculata*), nit (*Indigofera pulchella*) and the san hemp varieties (*Crotalories, Spp*) are also common in the village waste. However, the last named are not confined to village-waste, being as common in the better class of forests wherever there is a good growth of grass. The commonest are *Crotalaria mysoreusis, Crotalaria limifolia*

and *Crotalaria medicaginea,* while bansan (*Crotalaria sericca*) is confined to the beds and banks of streams.

The weeds and weedy plants in the cultivated fields and elsewhere are *Argemone maxicama,* Lim., *Cynandropsis gynandra,* Brig., *Malvastrum Coromandeliancum,* Gracke., *Side veromicifolia* Lom., *Abelmoscbus ficulmous* W. &,A., *Cassia tora,* lim., *Crotalaria medicaginea,* Lam., *Proralea corylifolia,* Lim., *Lagascea mollis, Cav., Calotropis gigantea* R. Br., *Solunum suranthense* Burn., *Amaranthus spindousu,* Lim., *Celosia argentea,* Lim., *Digera attenifolia,* Aschers., *Tragia hildebrandtii* M.A., *Aristida depressa* Retz., *Hateropogon contcatus,* Bean v., *Tribulus terrestris,* Lim., *Trianthema portulacastrum,* Lim. and *Arsitolochia bracteata,* Retz.

The trees, shrubs and under-shrubs, climbers grasses, parasites, and acqueceties and marshy plants commonly found in the District and not mentioned above are being given here. The sedges, pteridophytes mosses, liver worths, algae and fungi of the District are little known and there are no published accounts of these types of flora.

The names of the trees found in the District are.—

Babul (*Acacia arabica*), safed kikad (*Acacia ferruginea*) reunjha (*Acacia leucopholea*), samer (*Bombax malabaricum*), kasia (*Bridelia retusa*), palas (*Butea frondosa*), peepal (*Ficus religiosa*), baranga (*Kydia calcyna*), monin (*Odina wodier*), ber (*Zizyphusjujuba*), bel (*Acgle marmelos*), chichwa (*Albizzia odoratissima*), bhirra (*Choloroxylon swietenia*), dhobin (*Dalbergia paniculata*), gadhapalas (*Erythrina suberosa*), kaith (*Ferronia elephantum*), chiiol (*Holoptelea integrifolia*), bahera (*Terminalia belerica*), asta (*Bauhiniay racemoss*), jamrasi (*Elaeodendron glaucum*), papra (*Garnia latifolia*), dikam ili (*Gardemia lucida*), dudhia (*Wrightia tinctoria*).

Shurbs in the District are.—

Karonda (*Carissa spinosum*), jharberi (*Zizyphus rotundifolia*), akol (*Alangium lamarckki*), sitaphal (*Anona squamosa*), baikal (*Gymnosporia montana*), gurusakri (*Grewia hirsuta*), marorphali (*Helicteres isora*), kurchi (*Holarrhena Gntidysenterica*), harsinghar (*Nyctantnes arbortristic*), dhaman (*G. tiliaefolia*), gengerun (*G. loeviguta*), arte (*Erioloena Hokeriana*), apta (*racemosa*), kachnar (*variegata*) and *Bauhinius. B.* vahlii is the most common are --aper. Raoni (*Axacia pennata*), palashu (*or palashel*), (*Butea superba*), malkangni (*Celastrus paniculate*), amarbel (*Cuscuta reflexa*), makor (*Zizyphus oenoplia*), are some of the other climbers found in the District.

The different types of grass found in the District are.—

Kail or choti and marwel (*Dichanthuium annulatum*) Mushan (*Iscilema Laxum*) sheda (*Sehimanervosum,* Stepf), kunda (*Ischaemum pilosum,* Hac), gunher

(*Themeda quadrivalvis*, O. Kunty), rusa (*Cymbopogen martini*), dooba (*Cynodon dactylon*), sama (*Enhinochloa colonum*), Bhurbhusi (*Eragrostis tenella*), kusal (*Heteropogon contoptus*), moya (*Pennisetum hohenacheri*), munj (*Saccharum munja*). kans (*Saccharum spotcneum*). paonia (*Se-hime sulcatum*), khus (*Vetiveris zizenio-des*), gondal (*Anthesteria ciliata*), tor (*I. Rugosum Salisb*), (*I. Indicum, Merr*), (*Chrysopogon fulvus, chiov*), belia or barimorued (*Dichanthium caricosum A. Camus*), (*Iseilems lacum, Hacl*), (*T. traindra, Forsk*) and (*Bothriochola pertusa.* A. Camus).

The two parsasites, amarbel (*Cuscuta reflexa*) which makes choice of no particular host, and banda (*Loranthus longiflorus*) which prefers achar, mahua and mango, deserve mention. Gadar palas (*Erythrina suberosa*), a tree with pale yellow corky bark, is sometimes found on deep soil near villages. Finally there is the beautiful (*Floriosa superba*), a tuberous climber which comes up in the rains on black cotton soil. The flowers may be likened to butterflies.

The common habitats of the aquatic and marsh species in this area are a number of natural and artificial tanks, the rivers Abna, Sukta and Bham and their tributaries, irrigation channels, temporary ponds, and puddles. These maintain a rich hydrophytic and marsh flora. The common species are.—

Vallisperia spiralis. Linn., *Hydrilla verticillata*. Foyle, *Ceratophyllum demersum*. Linn , *Potamogeton perfoliatus*, Lim., P. *indicus*, Roxb, P. *Pectinatus* Naias minor, All., *Inomoea aquatics*. Forsk., *Asteracartha longifollia*, Nees, *Ammannia baccifera*, Linn., *Caesulia axillaris*, Roxb., *Bacopa minmieri*, *Altermanthera sesilis* R. Br. *Lemna paucicostata*, Hegelm, and Cyperus.

FOREST MANAGEMENT

Early History

The work of the forest conservation was first commenced in the year 1857. The rules then enforced were of a most minute and vexatious nature and the system of collecting the revenue unnecessarily inquisitiorial. Till 1865 the management of the forests of this District remained with the Political Agent. In the year 1865 the Central Provinces rules were applied to the forests of the District which were not transferred to the management of the Deputy Commissioner of the District. In the same year Punasa forests were transferred to the mangement of the Forest Department which declared it as Reserved forest. The rest of the Unreserved forests were gradually made over to the care of the Forest Department. In 1871, the first Forest Officer was posted in the District, but his duties were limited to assisting the Deputy Commissioner in managing the Unreserved forests It was not till 1878, when the Forest Act came into force, that all forests came under the management of the Forest Department and in 1879 were notified as Reserved forests. Punasa and Kalibhit forests at this stage were transferred from western Forest Division to the Nimar Forest Division. Till 1883, the Unreserved forests, lately declared in 1879 as Reserved forests, were treated as second class Reserved forests. The Distinction was abolished in 1883 and all were classed as Reserved forests.

The Introduction of Working Plans

In 1896 for the first time, working plans were prepared for each range separately. As these were found defective, a Scheme (plan) for the whole division, excluding the then Kalibhit range, was drawn by Taylor. The forests continued to be managed under its prescriptions till 1913, when another working plan based on Taylor's proposals was drawn by Bell. This divided the forests into High forests, Coppice and Grazing working circles. The High Forest working circle included all the forests with teak likely to grow timber size. Teak was worked under improved fellings with an arbitrary girth limit fixed for its exploitation. The Coppice working circle included the remaining area except that allotted to the Grazing working circle, which included areas set aside for grazing to relieve pressure upon the adjoining areas under regular working. Clearing and thinnings were not prescribed as a separate operation but in the teak forests of the High forest working circle, thinnings were to be carried out in congested areas along with main fellings. Cutting back operations and girdling were prescribed in important areas. Later on thinnings, ten years after the main fellings, were prescribed. The prescriptions of this plan lasted till 1931-32.

Results of Bell's Working Plan

A general improvement both in composition and stocking resulted from the above plan consisting chiefly in a marked increase of teak in certain areas like the Karond block (Khandwa range), the Chirakha block of Punasa range and the Partabpura and Madni blocks of Singaji range. *Anjan* also increased considerably in many areas of Punasa, Chandgarh, Mandwa and Asirgarh ranges where grazing had not been very heavy. In Khandwa range where grazing was heavy the *anjan* forests deteriorated. The cultural operations combined with grazing limitations also improved the general conditions of the forests, e.g., in blocks south of the Narmada in Chandgarh range and junjari and Takli felling series of Punasa range. Generally the whole of the forests under this plan, improved in both composition and density.

Rai's Working Plan (revised in 1948-49) and its Results

Under this plan the entire area of forests was stock-mapped on standard lines for Central Provinces. This plan divided the forests into two High forests working circles, an Improvement working circle, a Simple coppice working circle, a Miscellaneous working circle and a Bamboo working circle (overlapping.) The results of the forest conservation work after Lakhapat Rai's plan were good on the whole but as per Khisty and Gentle who revised the above plan in 1948-49, the executive officers gave too little attention to the presence of grass in the area with the result that the regrowth has been damaged. The fires occurred annually in these dry forests affecting the regrowth particularly in the worked coupes. The increased demand during the Second World War years was also responsible for the advanced fellings and excessive fellings The execution of the prescription of the plan was faulty in the interpretation of the rules and in the tendency to

clear-fell teak areas containing scanty teak. Reproduction has been apparently satisfactory in the areas where only light fellings were carried out. *Khair* had been clear-felled throughout and little attention had been given to the modification.

It appears that the proportion of teak had greatly increased in all the areas worked, in accordance with the prescriptions of the plan by Rai but from an examination of adjoining unworked areas the conclusion was that in most of the forest areas the proportion of miscellaneous species in the resulting crop has decreased chiefly due to fires and non-coppicing of the tree-stump after felling. In fact the density had in no way improved.

The Working Plan for the Period 1949-62

The working plan describes the Government forest areas in the following working circles for different treatments most suited to the crop conditions in the respective areas

Name of working circle.	Area in acres.	No. of forest circles
1 Teak High forest	175,356	13
2. Coppice with reserves	319,153	31
3 Improvement fellings	319,153	29
4. Nepa Mills plantation	61,426	2
5. Pasture	7,820	—
6 Miscellaneous	390,142	—
7 Overlapping bamboo	342,157	24
8. Overlapping salai	401,591	1

The principal prescription of the plan in various working circles is as follows.—

Teak High Forest

Method of treatment is for modified conversion to uniform with a convenient rotation of 80 years divided into four periods of 20 years each. Adequate measures for the retention of suitable mixture with teak, and safeguards against forest, the fellings on preciptious or very steep slopes and under-stocked localities were prescribed during the conservation fellings, in addition, a percentage of the immature crop which may form a part of the future crop. The yield is controlled by area

Coppice with Reserve

The system of coppice working was applied on a rotation of 40 years. Regeneration was mainly by coppice shoots supplemented by natural reproduction. The annual yield was controlled by area.

Improvement Fellings

Worked exactly as above.

Nepa Mills Plantation

This working circle has divided into two (a) Nepa Mills plantation felling series and (b) Selection felling series. The area included in the plantation felling series was leased out to the Nepa Mills in the first 20 years for *salai* trees only. On completion of the departmental exploitation the *salai* trees will be enumerated and handed over to the Nepa Mills together with coupe area. The selection felling series will be leased out to the Nepa Mills after a period of 20 years. Meanwhile, selection fellings will be carried out in order to exploit over-mature trees which might become useless and unfit for exploitation if left for another 20 years.

Pasture

No fellings were prescribed. The introduction of tree species, yielding leaf-fodder, and better quality grasses by artificial methods were prescribed. The circle is divided into units of three sections each. One section of each unit will remain closed to grazing during the monsoon months every year.

Miscellaneous

No regular working is prescribed. Forest villages will be managed according to the instructions in the C. P. Forest manual.

Overlapping Bamboo

Bamboos will be worked on a four years' cycle. No culms under one year of age will be cut and a minimum of eight culms over one year of age will be retained in each clump. The entire bamboo supply of the two Kalibhit and Burhanpur ranges except for one felling series in each range is reserved for the Nepa Mills.

Overlapping Salai

The supply of salai timber of this working circle is reserved for the Nepa Mills for the manufacture of newsprint. *Salai* will be worked out on a cycle of 40 years. The natural reproduction will be augmented by means of root-suckers, short cutting and coppice shoots. Precipitous and very steep slopes and nullah banks are excluded from fellings.

Vanmahotsava

Inspite of Government protection to the forests, it has been observed in the State that the forests suffer large damages due to fires, grazings and illicit cuttings. A considerable area under the forests formed parts of *ryotwari ex-malgujari* and *bhumiswami* forests. These have suffered heavy exploitation in the hands of the Proprietory right-holders for easy money. After the abolition of the proprietory rights in 1950 these forests now form the Protected forests of the District. To make good the losses in the past and also to publicise the forest conservancy among

the people, large-scale afforestation has been adopted. *Vanmahotsava* week is observed as in other parts of the State, in the District since 1949.

Forest Economics

The local population requires timber for building purposes, wood for agricultural implements, fuel, bamboos, thorns, grazing and grass for various other requirements. The marketable products are timber (mainly teak), wood fuel, bamboos, grass and charcoal. The demand for other minor products is limited. The important teak forests are situated in the east and north of the District, while the local markets are in the west, viz., Khandwa, Mandi and Sulgaon. The other local markets for timber and fuel are Bir, Harsud, Burhanpur, Ater and Kharighat. The important markets situated outside the District are Khirkiya, Indore, Sanawad and Jalgaon. Carts, trucks and railways are the chief means of transport. The provision of conveyance over the nullah crossings is the most baffling problem still awaiting solution. The cost of various operations in the exploitation, viz., logging, dragging, barking, fashioning, as also the cost of the labour and bullock-carts on daily wages varies considerably in different localities and in different seasons. A labourer is paid a rupee per day in general and about Rs. 4 for his bullock-cart. The average price of timber of teak variety in the year 1937 was Re. 0-14-10 per cubic feet which in the quinquennial period 1942-47 increased to Rs. 4-14-8 per cubic feet.

The figures of revenue and expenditure on forests is available since 1919-20. The gross revenue did not vary to any considerable extent from 1919-20 to 1939-40 The gradual rise in revenue from 1920-21 to 1925-26 is due to the better market conditions during the post-war cotton boom. The revenue dropped suddely in the year 1930-31 due to the economic depression but with improving market conditions it increased steadily till 1934-35 and remained more or less steady till 1939-40. When the Second World War commenced in 1939, it did not affect the market conditions to any considerable extent till Burma was occupied by Japan and the heavy exploitation of timber following this event led to a sudden and unprecedented rise in revenue. The market conditions were unsteady even in 1947-48 and the revenue depended upon the wild speculation and competition of the contractors, particularly the displaced persons who wanted to establish their business After the year 1948-49 the revenue showed a definite increasing trend due to the successful exploitation of the produce in the interior and the improved market conditions

Like revenue the expenditure also did not vary to any considerable extent till 1939-40. Since 1931-32 there has been some rise in expenditure due partly to the increased cost of labour and partly to the cultural operations introduced under Rai's plan. As a result of departmental exploitation undertaken to meet the urgent and heavy demand for timber by the Defence Department, the expenditure shot up suddely reaching its peak in 1942-43. The expenditure under 'B' establishment was comparatively steady. Since 1939-40, however, this expen-

diture has also slowly but surely gone up partly due to the increase in staff required during the War years for the departmental exploitation and partly due to the increased cost of labour and the grant of extra allowances mentioned by the then Provincial Government in view of the increased cost of living. The extra establishment and emergency works were abolished after 1945-46 and the expenditure came down to normal and remained so for about ten years. Since the year 1955-56 the expenditure has increased manifold due to the improvements in forestry.

From 1919-20 to 1941-42 the surplus of forest revenue remained more or less at a lakh of rupees. By 1945-46 the increase in the surplus was five times as much. After a period of uncertainty for about two post-War years, there was a further increase in the surplus forest revenue to over Rs. 16 lakhs in 1956-60 and Rs. 29 lakhs in the following year.

GAME LAWS

Game Laws and Measures for the Preservation of Wild Life

The forests of the District, apart from being an important source of wealth and centres of natural beauty afford shelter to numerous species of wild life. The Government being alive to the needs of preservation of wild life, have enacted the Central Provinces Game Act, 1935 (XV of 1935) for preventing indiscriminate shooting and destruction of animals. The measures adopted to achieve this end are as follows:--

1. The Reserved forests, subject to the closure of certain areas. for the purpose of forest management or as Game sanctuaries for the protection of Game other then carnivora, are divided into shooting blocks which are open for shooting only under a permit on payment of prescribed fees for a period of not less than 10 days. Permits for the District are also issued.

2. No permit is granted for shooting a bird or an animal to which the Central Provinces Game Act of 1935 applies, unless the permit-holder has a licence under section 4, or is a person exempted by or under section 9 of that Act.

3. Except carnivora, a limited head of Game shall be allowed to be shot in any shooting block in any one year.

4. The poisoning and dynamiting of rivers and other harmful practices are prohibited.

5. Capturing or snaring a Game near water-hole or salt-lick or near a path leading to water or a salt-lick is prohibited.

6. No holder of licence shall shoot at (a) any Game other than carnivora (b) any small Game other than ducks, a goose and snipe, from a fixed position near water or a salt-lick. The prohibition shall not apply to the shooting of Game in the course of an organised beat.

7. No person shall shoot at any animal to which the Game Act applies, other than carnivora, from a motor vehicle or from within 100 yards of a motor vehicle, which brought him to the vicinity of an animal or by the use of search light.

8. No person shall, between the sun-set and sun-rise shoot at a carnivora, to which the Act applies, or from a motor vehicle, or from within 100 yards of a motor vehicle which has brought him to the vicinity of the animal.

9. No animal will be shot in the closed season.

The following animals are prohibited from being shot.—

(a) Deer and Antilope, other than Nilgai,
(b) Doves, Hind and Fawns,
(c) Immature Stags and Ducks,
(d) Hornless Stag,
(e) Stag with horns in velvet,
(f) Wild Buffalo and
(g) Bison

The existing arrangement of controlled shooting in the Reserved forests and the rules are quite suitable and adequate to preserve the wild fauna.

Wild Life Preservation Week

To make the masses more conscious about the importance of the preservation of wild life and the benefits accruing from its existence, a Wild Life Preservation Week is observed annually as in other parts of the Country. Posters, slides and movies are exhibited among the masses and lectures are arranged.

FAUNA

Past Records

Fauna of the District has been recorded in the earlier District Gazetteer. The Nimar District Gazetteer of 1907, edited by R. V. Russell accounts for the bison, tiger, panther wolf, wild dog, bear, nilgai, black duck, langur and brown monkey among the mammals; of the birds the green and blue rock pigeons, the common sandgrouse, the painted sandgrouse, quail and portridge have been accounted. Captain J. Forsyth in the accounts of the Game birds and animals of the Narmada valley, though not of the District in particular, has also enumerated some other animals.

Mammals

Tiger (*Felis tigris*) Sher or Bagh

Tigers are found all over the District. Their number has greatly diminished

in recent years due to the heavy pressure of gun. In the year 1949 when Khisty and Gentle had revised the forest working plan of the Khandwa Division (then whole of the District) they were assumed to be in abundance in the Kalibhit and Chandgarh ranges on the basis of their number killed by the sportsmen. The Tiger and Panther census enumerated with the help of pugmarks on the 11th May, 1961 confirms this and, on the other hand, also suggests the abundance of the beast in Burhanpur and West Asir ranges in the south western parts of the District. It has been assessed by the Census that the ratio of female tigers, as also the cubs is very small in the District. The total number of tigers enumerated rangewise is East-Kalibhit 3, West-Kalibhit 9, Punasa 5, Chandgarh 6, Burhanpur 7, Piplod 3, Nepa 2, East-Asir 3 and West-Asir 9. The total for the District is 217.

Leopard or Panther (*Pardus fel.s*)

The large species of the cat family is well known in India and is reported in the East and West Kalibhit, Chandgahr and Burhanpur ranges. Of the two varieties marked in the District, the larger is locally called *Chundaria* or *Adana* and the smaller one *Chita* or *Bimat*. The forest authorities, however, group all animals of this species in this District into the type of 'Panther'. Leopard and Panther are the two names for the same species but in modern times the larger type is specifically called the Panther. The Tiger and Panther census of May, 1961 in the District gives the following range wise distribution.—

East-Kalibhit 2, West-Kalibhit 5, Chandgarh 7 and Burhanpur 9.

Caracal (*Fejis caracal*), *Sivah Gosh*

It is noticed in the Bedia tract of Khandwa range only. Little is known of its habits. It is said to pray on gazelles, small deer, hare and birds. It is easily tamed and can be trained to catch the animal on which it prays.

Indian Wild Dog (*Cyon dukhunenis* or *cyon rutilans*) **Son Kutta**

It is plentiful in the East and West Kalibhit, Punasa and Chandgarh ranges. It is absolutely predatory in its habits and is undoubtedly the most inverterate Game destroyer. Sloth Bear (*Melursus ursinus*), Bhalu or Reechh is fairly abundant in the two Kalibhit ranges and the Chandgarh reserve. Elsewhere it is confined to sheltered valleys, caves and main water courses. Owing to its nocturnal habits, however, it is not much in evidence unless specially sought for. Bisons are seen in the two Kalibhit ranges. Barasingha or Swamp Deer (*Carrus dunanceli*) is not found in the forests of this Division. Black-Buck (*Antelope cervicapra*), Kala Hiran is scarce; a few occur in the Singaji and Asirgarh ranges. Sambhar (*Cervus unicolor*) may be described as abundant, more so in the Chandgarh reserves, the two Kalibhits, Punasa and Mandwa ranges. Spotted-Deer (*Cervusaxis*), Chital is fairly common all over the Forest Divisions but is particularly abundant in Chandgarh. Punasa, Singaji, Mandwa and Burhanpur ranges. Four-Horned Deer (*Tetracerus quadricornis*), Chausingha is fairly common all over the forests of the District. Indian Gazelle (*Gazella bennettii*) is plentiful in the Mandwa, Khandwa,

Asirgarh, Burhanpur and Punasa ranges and, to a lesser extent, in the Chandgarh reserve and Singaji range. It is not noticed in the two Kalibhit ranges in the Chandgarh range, south of the Narmada. Barking Deer (*Cervulus muntijac*) or Bherki does not appear in the forests of the District. Blue Bull (*Boselaphus tragocamelus*) is very common in Mandwa, Asirgarh, Punasa, Chandgarh, Khandwa and Singaji ranges, It is mostly confined to the vicinity of cultivated fields. Hyena, wild cat, pigs and jackal are fairly common all over the forests in the District. Hare is very common all over the forests.

Birds

More or Pea-Fowl (*Pavo cristatus*) are plentiful everywhere particularly in cultivated areas, and in the vicinity of nullah and river banks. Jangli Murgi or Grey Jungle Fowl (*Gallus sonneratti*) is confined to the two Kalibhit ranges and Sumardeo block (along the Tapti) of Burhanpur range. The red jungle fowl is found in the vicinity of Balwara and Khawal forest villages in Punasa and Asirgarh ranges, respectively, Kabutar, Blue Rock, Pigeon (*Clumba intermedia*), Harial, Green Pigeen (*Crocopus spp*)., Bhat Titar, Sandgrouse (*Pierocles spp*), Titar, Gray Partridge (*Francolinus Pondicerianus*), and Bater, Gray quail (*Coturnix commuris*) are found all over the District. Ducks and snipe are noticed at the tanks of Khandwa and Harsud tahsils in the season. Other birds commonly noticed in the District are parrots, Wood-Peckers, Owls, Minnets, Doves, Swallows and Vultures.

Reptiles and Amphibians

Reptiles and amphibians noticed in the District are a number of snakes and lizzards Crocodile and turtles are found in the Narmada and the Tapti. The size of crocodiles is approximately about 6 to 8 feet in length. Frogs and toads are found in many varieties everywhere near water-bodies.

Insects

The insects most common in view are the butterfly varieties, defoliator of teak leaves (*Hypalus machacrolus*), defoiliator of maharukh (*Athera fabriecella*), bamboo borer ((*Dinodcrous*), *salai* borer (*Abraciocerous*), or (*Beticera reformiocistata*), blister beetel and scorpion.

Fishes

So far about 70 species of fish have been recorded in Madhya Pradesh, out of these almost all important varieties are available in the local waters of the District. This includes all the important varieties of fresh water fishes such as *Labeo fimbriatus*, *Labeo gonius*, *Barbas tor*. *Cirrhina mrigala*, *Catle catla*, *Calla calia*, *Ophiocephalus marulius*, *O Striatus*, *Notopterus*, *Wallagonia attu*, *Mystus aor*, *Mystus seenghala*, *Mystus armatus Spp* , etc. Both lentic and obilltic resources of the District are quite rich.

In addition to this almost all the minor and larvicidal fishes are available in the District.

CLIMATE

The climate* of the District is pleasant and healthy. The District falls in the drier part of India. The yearly cycle of temperature and the specific period of rainfall divide the year into four seasons. The cold season lasts from December to February, the hot season from March to May, the monsoon season from June to September and the post-monsoon season during October and November.

The systematic knowledge of the climate of the District depends upon the meteorological observatory at Khandwa and the four raingauge stations at Khandwa, Burhanpur, Harsud and Mandhata in the District and other stations in the neighbourhood.

The Khandwa observatory records the month of May as the hottest month with the maximum ever recorded temperature of 47° 2C. (117° F). December is the coldest month of the year although the lowest fall was recorded upto 0.6 C. (30.9° F) on the night of the 1st February, 1929. The average of the daily temperature in the month of May is 34° 55.C. (94.19° F) while in the month of December it is 19°.96 C. (67.93° F). The daily day and night temperatures begin to rise just after December but markedly after February. The weather becomes cool with the onset of the monsoon The night temperatures continue to fall from May, reaching the lowest degree in December but the fall in the day temperature is interrupted by a slight temporary rise in October after the withdrawal of the monsoon.

The range of day and night temperatures is low during the rainy season due to the high percentage of relative humidity in the atmosphere. It is higher in other parts of the year, the highest range being in the dry winter months.

Winds

The wind follows the low atmospheric pressure areas and the speed depends upon the distance and the gravity of the lowes. The mean wind speed is 13.4 km. per hour, the highest in the month of June, while it is the lowest, 3.7 km. per hour in the months of November and December

Hot winds, which strengthen with the advance of the summer season, blow steadily from directions between west and north-west. During the monsoon season the winds are mainly from directions between south-west and north-west. In the post-monsoon months winds are week and variable in the forenoons and blow predominantly from directions between north-west and north-east in the

*Based on note supplied by the Director-General of Observatories, Poona.

afternoons. During the winter months they are from the directions between north and east.

Cloudiness

Skies are clear or lightly clouded in the winter, summer and post-monsoon months. During the monsoon months skies are heavily clouded or overcast.

Rainfall

Records of rainfall for four stations in the District are available for periods ranging from 45 to 80 years upto 1957. The average figures given in Appendix account for the records of the latest 50 years. The average annual rainfall of the District is 880 m.m. (34.65"). The northern portion of the district gets more rainfall than the southern portion. The District gets 89 3 per cent of the annual rainfall during the rainy months. The average annually number of rainy days is 43.3 of which 86.2 per cent or 37 5 days are distributed among the rainy months. July is the rainiest month with the highest rainfall and the highest number of rainy days. The monsoon reaches of District by about the 10th of June and withdraws by the beginning of October.

The variation of rainfall from year to year is considerable but the serious drops resulting in crop failures are rare. If properly distributed, 70 per cent of the average annual rainfall is sufficient to yield a fairly good autumn crop. Even in 1905 when Khandwa got only 16" of rainfall the principal crops gave an average out-turn in the Tahsil. During the first half of the twentieth Century, the highest rainfall, i e., 165 per cent of the normal occurred in the year 1944 and 1918 was the year of lowest rainfall with only 50 per cent of the normal. During the same 50 year period there were 12 years when the rainfall was less than 80 per cent of the normal. Three consecutive years of low rainfall occurred once and two consecutive years of low rainfall twice. In the case of individual stations there have been as many as five occasions of low rainfall occurring in the two or three consecutive years.

The heaviest rainfall in a day measuring 259 m m. (10.2") was recorded at Burhanpur on 12th September, 1894.

Humidity

Except during the rainy season the relative humidity is generally low especially in the afternoons. The summer months are the driest when relative humidities can be as low as ten per cent.

Special Weather Phenomena

In association with monsoon depressions which originate in the Bay of Bengal and move westwards, the District experiences strong winds and widespread heavy rains. Less frequently, storms or depressions of the monsoon months also affect the weather over the District. The accumulation of clouds and the early

rains (May, June and July) are mostly accompanied by thunder storms. Thunder storms are also frequent when the monsoon is about to retreat (September and October) but in other months they are less frequent. Dust storms may occur in summer, mostly in May and June. Hail, a rare phenomena, has been recorded in February.

Fog occurs in the District during the early and late winter months but only in proportion to the humidity in the atmosphere in the mornings and the calmness of the wind. In January, as in other parts of the year it is absent.

CHAPTER II

HISTORY

Archaeology

Recent explorations in the beds of the Agni, Kundala, Machikunda, Chhota Tawa, Samdeni, Ruprel and Ghorapachhar, all tributaries of the Narmada, have revealed traces of the Palaeolithic men in East Nimar District.[1] Palaeolithic tools have been discovered at Bijalpur, Barakund, Mahalkheri, Matupur and other places in Harsud tahsil. Microliths, consisting of blades, lunates, crescents and scrapers, and fluted cores have also been discovered in the above mentioned river valleys at Punaghat-Kala, Borkheda-Khurd, Peeplya-Bawli, Roshini and a large number of other villages in Harsud tahsil and at Dehgaon, Hutiya, Atud-Khasa, Ratanpur, Nandh-kheda and other places, in Khandwa tahsil.[2] Further explorations in East Nimar and adjoining district confirm the three-cycle hypothesis of De Terra and Patterson, the sequence of deposits being: Large-sized pebble-gravel, red sandy clay and the midium-sized pebble-gravel containing Middle Stone Age tools with fossils, finer gravel with thin flake-blade and scraper industry; and alluvium.[3]

Lately, a proto-historic site, situated on the Tapti, 5 miles south-west of Burhanpur, has, in addition to microliths, yielded red-ware with black painting, black and red and red-slipped wares, grey-ware with light-cream slip and dull-grey ware.

In the historical period, we have ample references to Mahishmati in the *Puranas* and the Epics. A number of eminant scholars identify Omkara Mandhata, a rocky island on the Narmada, 32 miles north-west of Khandwa, with ancient Mahishmati,[4] although this identification has been disputed by others[5].

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1 Indian Archaeology—A Review, 1958-59, p 28; 1959-60, p. 69; 1960-61, p. 61.

2. Ibid.

3. Ibid, 1962-63, p. 10.

4. The *Markandeya Purana*, (Bibliotheca Indica), 1914, p. 333 and note; Fleet, Journal, Royal Asiatic Society, 1910, pp. 440-47; V. V. Mirashi, Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, pt--I p XLIV; Indian Antiquary, 1876, p. 53.

5. Some scholars identify Mahishmati with Maheshwar in West Nimar (Khargone) District. For details see Proceedings, Indian History Congress, 1939, p. 141 and 1946, p. 61: Journal of the Gujarat Research Society, Vol. VIII, 1946, pp 135-38; The Excavations at Maheshwar and Navdatoli, pp. 13-15.

But Cunningham differing from both these views thought that Mahishmati might be Mandla, See Ancient Geography of India, p 559.

If this identification was correct it would make Omkara Mandhata a place of great antiquity and endow the region covered by the present East Mimar District with rich historical tradition. The *Puranas* attribute the foundation and fortification of a town on the Narmada, between the Vindhyan and the Rikshavat (Satpura) ranges, to Muchukund, the third son of Mandhatri of the Ikshvaku family. Later, the Haihaya king Mahishmant, a scion of the Yadu family, is said to have conquered the city and named it Mahishmati.[1]

The *Vayupurana*[2] and the *Matsyapurana*,[3] however, give a different story. They tell us that the city was conquered by Arjuna, son of Kritavirya, from the Nagas, who must have been the aboriginal inhabitants of the Narmada region. Mahishmati is also referred to in the *Mahabharat*[4] We are told that during his *digvijaya* Sahadeva proceeded to conquer Mahishmati on the Narmada, then being ruled by king Nila.[5] But Sahadeva was helpless as the town was under the protection of *Agni*, the Fire God.

Nothing further is known about the history of this region till shortly before the rise of Buddhism, when we find Nimar included in the Kingdom of Avanti[6], one of the four great contemporary monarchies in India, the other three being Koshala, Vatsa and Magadha. The *Mahagovinda Suttanta* mentions Mahissati (Mahishmati) as the capital of Avanti, and refers to its king Vessabhu, one of the seven kings in the line of Bharata. It appears that for some time there were two Avantis, the Northern, of which the capital was Ujjain and the Southern of which the capital was Mahishmati.[7] The literary traditions connect many tribal names with Mahishmati region and the Mahisakas or Mahismakas are said to be the inhabitants of Avanti—Dakshinapatha[8]. Another people called Purika also settle here. A number of classical Sanskrit writers like Kalidas, Dandin, Rajashekhar also refer to Mahishmati.

In the Buddha's time, however, there existed only one United Kingdom of Avanti under King Chand Pradyota Mahasena, with Ujjain as capital. It seems that with the extension of this territory towards the north-east, the capital was later shifted from Mahishmati to Ujjain.[9] The rule of the Pradyota dynasty over the region lasted for 138 years. The last of the Pradyota Kings, was probably, humbled by Shishunaga and Avanti was incorporated with the growing kingdom

1. The Vedic Age, p. 278.
2. Vol. II Adhyaya 32, Verse 26, (Ed. by Rajendralal Mitra, Bibliotheca Indica), Calcutta, 1886
3. Adhyaya 43, Verse 29 (Anandashrama Ed.) Poona. 1907.
4. The Sabha Parvan (Ed. by Edgerton, Poona, 1944, Sarga 28, Verses 1-38; Vol VI, Udyoga Parvan (Ed. by S. K. De), Poona, 1940, Sarga 139, Verse 23.
5. King Nila of Mahishmati fought with the Kauravas against the Pandavas in the great Bharata War.
6. H. C. Raychaudhuri, Political History of Ancient India, p. 144.
7. D. R. Bhandarkar, Carmichaell Lectures, 1918, p. 54.
8. Arthashastra of Kautilya Tr. Shamsastry, 1929, p. 83,
9. B C. Law, Ujjaiyani in Ancient India, p. 4.



Siddhashram [illegible]



Image of Vishnu, Omkareshwar Temple, Mandhata

of Magadha.[1] In the subsequent period, the subjugation of this region by the Nandas does not seem to be improbable although there is lack of confirmation by independent authorities.[2] The *Puranas* seem to provide an indirect corroboration. They call Mahapadma, the first Nanda King, the destroyer of all the Kshatriyas (*Sarva Kshatrantakah*) and the sole monarch (*ekarat*) of the earth,[3] and among the contemporary dynasties the name of the Pradyotas is conspicuous by its absence.

Mauryas

Direct references, either literary or epigraphic, for this area during the Mauryan epoch, are absent. But the mighty Maurya Empire, which extended from the borders of Persia in the west to Mysore in the south, could be safely stated to have included the District in its domain. Avanti, which included Western and Central Malwa, north of the river Tapti,[4] was a province of Maurya Empire.[5] Asoka, according to the *Dipavamsa*, was Viceroy of Avanti for 11 years, with his headquarters at Ujjain, during the reign of his father, Bindusara.

Sungas

In the first quarter of the second century B. C., the Sungas, extended their sway over this region. According to the *Puranas* and the *Harshacharita* the suzerainty of Magadha passed from the Mauryas to the Sungas on the assassination of the last Maurya Emperor, Brihadratha, by his own general Pushyamitra (C 186-151 B. C.). The *Malavikagnimitra* tells us that Vidisha was governed by Crown-Prince Agnimitra, as his father's Viceroy.[6] Agnimitra placed Virasena, his brother in-law (wife's brother), in command of a frontier fortress on the banks of the Narmada.[7] The *Malavikagnimitra* goes on to narrate the episode leading to the strained relations between Agnimitra and Yajnasena, the ruler of Vidarbha. The former ordered Virasena to launch an invasion. Yajnasena was defeated and Vidarbha was divided between the two cousins Yajnasena and Madhavasena, under Pushyamitra as suzerain.[8] This extended the sphere of influence of the Sungas to the areas south of the river Narmada, including Nimar.

Early Satavahanas

A new power known as the Satavahana (also called Andhra-bhritya in the *Puranas*) arose in the trans--Vindhyan India towards the third quarter of the first Century B. C. According to the *Puranas*, Simuka, variously spelt as Sisuka,

1. H. C Raychaudhuri, op cit, p 220
2. Age of the Nandas and Mauryas (Ed by K A. Nilakanta Sastri), pp. 18-20.
3. Ibid pp. 233-35.
4. Cambridge History of India, Vol I. p. 463
5. R K. Mookerji, Chandragupta Maurya and His Times, pp 52-53; R K. Mookerji, Ashoka pp 173-42
6. Malavikagnimitra, Act V, Verse 20; B. M. Barua and Sinha Bharhut Inscriptions, p 3.
7. Some manuscripts mention Mandakini as the name of the river. (Indian Historical Quarterly, 1925, p 214). A stream called Mandakini lies 5 miles south of the Tapti (Indian Antiquary, 1902 p. 254)
8. The Age of Imperial Unity, p. 97.

Sipraka. Sindhuka, gave the final *coup de grace* to the Kanva power and founded the Satavahana dynasty[1]. King Satakarni I (*C*. 27-17 B. C.),[2] son (or nephew) of Simuka, is stated to have conquered Western Malwa and the territory to the south of it including Anupa (the region round Mahishmati) and Vidarbha.[3] This would make East Nimar, a part of the kingdom of the Early Satavahana rulers. To celebrate his resounding victories, Satakarni I performed two *asvamedhas* and one *rajasuya*. He also assumed the sonorous title of *Dakshinapatha-pati* (Lord of the Deccan).

The Satavahana power suffered a temporary eclipse in the first Century A. D. The Saka Satraps of Western India, belonging to the Kshaharata line, tore away eastern and western Malwa from the Satavahana empire, sometime in the closing years of the first Century A. D. Nahapana, the greatest of the Kshaharata Satraps, in association with Ushavadata (Rishabhadatta) overwhelmed Malwa, the Narmada valley, the western part of Vidarbha together with parts of Maharashtra and Western India.[4] For sometime, therefore, East Nimar seems to have been under the sway of Nahapana.

But, as stated before, the eclipse of the Satavahana power was only a temporary phase They soon rallied forces under the leadership of Gautamiputra Satakarni (*C*. 106-30 A. D.), "extirpated the Kshaharata dynasty" and not only recovered the lost territories but further extended it in all directions. East Nimar at that period came under the Satavahana authority, for among the conquered territories, mentioned in the Nasik *prasasti*, figure Anupa (district around Mahishmati on the Narmada), Akara (Eastern Malwa), Avanti (Western Malwa) and Vidarbha.[5] Gautamiputra Satakarni is also styled as lord of Vijha (Eastern Vindhyas), Achhavata (Rikshavata or Satpura mountains), etc.[6]

Vasishthiputra Pulumavi (*C*. 130-159 A. D.), son of Gautamiputra, succeeded to the extensive empire built by his valiant father. The epigraphic evidence regarding the Satavahana occupation of these regions receives corroboration

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1. There are conflicting theories regarding the Satavahana chronology Some scholars place Simuka between *C*. 235-213 B C, while others place him between *C*. 50-37 B. C For a fuller discussion see H. C. Raychaudhuri's Political History of Ancient India. pp. 403-17 and A comprehensive History of India, Vol. II, pp 295-301.
2 Some scholars fix reign of Satakarni I between circa 194 and 185 B. C. But this date does not seem probable; for during the reign of Pushyamitra which synchronises with this period, the Sunga armies triumphantly marched across the Narmada, and not only forced the ruler of Vidarbha to submit but to agree to a partition af the Kingdom without a word of protest from the Satavahanas. The inference is clear that Satavahana suzerainty was established over Vidarbha at a later date.
3 Nanaghat Inscription of Nayanika (Naganika). Luder's list No. 1112
4. This is known from Nahapana's and his son-in-law's inscriptions in the caves at Nasik, Junnar and Kalre, Also see A Comprehensive History of India, Vol. II pp. 308-10
5. Epigraphia Indica Vol. VIII. pp 60 ff.
6. Indian Antiquary, Vol. XLVII, 1918, pp. 150-51.

in the discovery of two silver coins of Gautamiputra Yajnasri Satakarni[1] and Vasishthiputra Pulumavi[2] at Vidisha.

Kardamakas

Vasishthiputra Pulumavi, however, could not hold the territories for long. The Western Satraps, under the leadership of Chashtana and his grandson Rudradaman of the Kardamaka family, soon appeared on the scene, avenging the defeat of Nahapana and recovering the lost provinces. In the Junagadh Inscription dated in Saka era 72 (A.D. 150), Rudradaman claims to have twice defeated Satakarni,[3] the lord of the *Dakshinapatha* and conquered, among other provinces, Eastern and Western Malwa and the region round Mahishmati.[4] Probably, some portions of the District were in the hands of a collateral Vidarbha family till the decline of the Satavahana dynasty in 250 A.D.

Abhiras

As a result of dismemberment of the Satavahana empire, the Abhiras, who seem to have held position of power and vantage under the former, specially in Khandesh, established an independent kingdom in the third Century A. D. The *Puranas* say that the Abhiras who succeeded the Andhras (i.e. Satavahanas) in the Deccan were *Andhrabhrityas* i.e. servants of the Andhras.[5] Isvarasena, known from the Nasik Cave Inscription, dated 250 A. D., was the founder of the Abhira dynasty.[6] He was also probably originator of Abhira era, which later on came to be known as Kalachuri-Chedi era.[7] The Abhiras appear to have extended their sway to the Anupa region and Malwa also. The extension of the Abhira kingdom finds corroboration in the use of Abhira era in the countries of Nimar and Malwa in the fourth and fifth Centuries A. D.[8] Copper plate grants of *Maharaja* Svamidasa dated in year 67 (A. D. 316-17), of *Maharaja* Bhulunda dated in the year 107 (A. D. 356-57) and *Maharaja* Rudradasa in the year 117 (A. D. 366-67) suggest that probably northern part of the District continued to be under the feudatories[9] of the Abhiras till about the third quarter of the fourth Century A. D. After the fall of the Abhiras, these princes seem to have transferred their allegiance to the Vakatakas.

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1. Report of the Archaeological Survey of India, 1913-14, pp. 208.
2. Journal of The Numismatic Society of India Vol XIV pp. 1-3
3. The identification of Satakarni is controversial. He has also been identified with Gautamiputra and Siva-Sri Pulumayi
4. Epigraphia Indica, Vol VIII, pt. I, p 44 See also R. S. Tripathi's History of Ancient India, p. 218 and A Comprehensive History of India, Vol II, p. 282.
5. Pargiter Dynasties of the Kali Age. p 45
6. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. VIII, pp. 88-89, B. Suryavanshi. The Abhiras—their History and Culture, p. 32
7. B. Suryavanshi, op. Cit, p. 32.
8. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, pt I, p XXXVII
9. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, pt I, p. XXXV D C Sarkar, however, suggests that Svamidasa, Bhulunda and Rudradasa were the feudatories of the Imperial Guptas See The Age of Imperial Unity, p 222, footnote no 3.

Vakatakas

Another dynasty, which rose into prominence after the collapse of the Satavahana empire, was that of the Vakatakas. The *Puranas* mention Vindhyashakti (*C.* 255-275 A. D.), as the founder of the dynasty with his earlier capital at Purika, associated with Vidarbha. The nucleus of the Vakataka principality thus lay in western part of the Central Provinces or Vidarbha.[1] His son and successor Pravarasena I (*C.* 275-335 A. D.), extended the Vakataka hegemony over the vast area extending from Bundelkhand to the Hyderabad State. Since his empire included greater part of the Central Province (to the south of the Narmada) it goes without saying that southern part of East Nimar was included in it.[2] He is the only ruler of the dynasty to assume to title of *Samarat* (Emperor). Pravarasena succeeded in enlarging the small patrimony in western part of Vidarbha into a big empire which included northern Maharashtra, Vidarbha, Central Provinces to the south of the Narmada and a considerable portion of the erstwhile Hyderabad State. The District was probably under the direct administration of the Emperor or his sons.[3]

After his death in *circa* A. D. 335, Pravarsena's empire was split up into two branches, the main or the northern branch, ruling over the northern portion of Vidarbha and western districts of the Central Provinces, with their headquarters at Nandivardhana in the Nagpur District, and the Basim branch with capital at Vatsagulma in Akola District. The administration of the areas comprised in East Nimar were, thus, in the hands of the northern branch,[4] till the close of the fifth Century A.D. Thereafter, East Nimar was, in the first quarter of the sixth Century A.D., under the rule of the Basim branch of the Vakataka dynasty.[5] At the time of death of Harishena in *circa* A.D. 510 the Vakataka kingdom was, in fact, at the zenith of its power and prestige and was unrivalled in the country in extent.

Imperial Guptas

The period of the Vakataka supremacy synchronises with the extension of influence of the Imperial Guptas in this region. From the Eran Stone Inscription of Samudra Gupta it is evident that Eastern Malwa had already passed under the rule of the Guptas. It is also clear from his Eran Inscription that he deprived the Vakatakas of their possessions in Central India, which were under their vassal Vyaghradeva. The Allahabad *prasasti* refers to Samudra Gupta's victory over Vyaghrasaya, who, probably, is identical with Vyaghra of Nachna and Ganj Inscription.[6] The Abhiras are included in the Allahabad *prasasti* in the list of tribes subdued by the Gupta Emperor but it is not certain whether the reference is to

1. R. C. Majumdar and A. S. Altekar, The Vakataka—Gupta Age, p. 96.
2. Ibid, p 100.
3. Ibid.
4. The Classical Age, p. 177; R. K. Mookerji, The Gupta Empire, p, 42.
5. R. C. Majumdar and A. S. Altekar, op cit. p. 122.
6. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol III, p. 233; Epigraphia Indica, Vol. XVII, p. 12.

the Abhira kingdom of Khandesh[1]. It was the Gupta Emperor Chandra Gupta II (*C.* A.D. 375-414), who in order to secure a helpful ally on his southern flank, while his armies were operating in Malwa and Gujarat, entered into matrimonial alliance with the Vakatakas by marrying his daughter Prabhavati to the vakataka Crown Prince Rudrasena II. Pointing out the political significance of this relationship, V. A. Smith says that the geographical position of the Vakataka kingdom was such that it "could be of much service or disservice to the northern invader of the dominions of the Saka Satraps of Gujarat and Saurashtra."[2] It was during the regency of Prabhavati Gupta (*C.* 390-410 A.D.), that the conquest of Gujarat and Kathiawar and Western Malwa was accomplished. But except for spreading their influence, the Guptas seemed to have left the Vakatakas undisturbed in their possessions.

There is evidence to show that the northern part of the District was under the rule of an independent chief, *Maharaja* Subandhu in the last quarter of the fifth Century. His Barwani copper-plate grant issued from Mahishmati in the year 167 (486 A.D.), makes no reference to any Gupta suzerain.[3] This is clearly indicative of the declining fortunes of the Gupta power

The Gupta Empire was faced with the terrible ordeal of the Huna invasion in the reign of Skanda Gupta (*C.* 455-476 A.D.). The Hunas, notorious for their ferocious cruelty, were at that time regarded as the most dreaded scourge of humanity. But the Gupta Emperor inflicted a crushing defeat upon them and saved his empire from ravages. One or two generations passed before the Hunas were on the move again, first under Toramana and then under his son Mihirkula. For a time, they seemed to succeed. But the Hunas were not destined to enjoy success for long, Mihirkula met his doom at the hands of Narsimha Gupta Baladitya, the Gupta ruler, and Yasodharman. Inroads of the Hunas, however, shook the foundations both of the Gupta and the Vakataka empires. The circumstance gave rise to serious scramble for power. Feudal chiefs arose on all fronts to carve out independent principalities.

In Malwa and the northern districts of the Vakataka dominions, which could safely be assumed to have included the areas of East Nimar, Yasodharman of Mandsore suddenly rose to power and assumed imperial titles by *C.* 525 A.D. Appearing as a meteor on the political horizon, Yasodharman carried his victorious arms far and wide and set up a big empire. He is credited with the

1. Some scholars believe that the Abhiras referred to there may have belonged to Central or Western India.
2. Journal, Royal Asiatic Society 1914, p. 324.
3. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. XIX, p. 281. V. V. Mirashi refers the date to the Abhira or Kalachuri era which makes the year 167 equivalent to 416-17 A. D. This would make Subandhu a contemporary of Kumara Gupta I, who might have allowed the kingdom of Mahishmati as a buffer state between his own dominions and the rising power of the Traikutakas. For a detailed discussion see Indian Historical Quarterly, Vol. XXI, pp. 82-83 and The Age of Imperial Unity, p 222 and foot note no. 3.

conquest of the whole of northern India from the Brahmaputra to the Western Ocean and from the Himalayas to the Mount Mahendra in Ganjam (Orisa).[1]

Kalachuris

The Vakataka Empire disappeared by *circa* 540 A.D. about the same time Yasodharman, after blazing a meteoric brilliance, vanished into darkness. In these political conditions the Early Kalachuris rose into prominence in this area in the second half of the sixth Century, with their capital, at Mahishmati. While 'Kalachuri' is the most usual style—and that most familiar to modern historians—other variants like Kalachchuri, Katatsuri, Kalachuti, Kalachurya, Kalichuri are also known. The name Kalachuri is held to be non-Sanskritic in origin and has indeed been equated with the Turkish word *Kuluchur*, indicating an office of high rank. This, if correct, would point to a foreign origin of the dynasty, and they may well have entered India with the Hunas and Gurjaras.[2] Though the early Kalachuris do not call themselves Haihayas in their grants, but in later times the family claimed descent from the Haihaya King Arjuna, son of Kritivirya, who, according to traditions preserved in the Epics and the *Puranas*, ruled in the Anupa country on the Narmada, with Mahishmati as their capital.[3] The Kalachuris used an era called Kalachuri or Chedi *samvat*, according to which reckoning commenced from the 25th September 249 A.D. This era, which continued in use for several centuries, and in countries widely separated, originated in western India from the reign of Abhira King Isvarasena.[4]

From the epigraphic records, names of three Kalachuri kings, Krishnaraja, his son Sankargana and the latter's son Buddharaja are known. The dynasty seems to have been founded by Krishnaraja's father, but neither his name nor his date is known to us. The real founder of the greatness of the dynasty was Krishnaraja (*circa* 550-575 A.D.), whose silver coins bearing the legand *Paramamahesvara* Krishnarajah and figure of a *Nandi* (bull) have been discovered in such distant parts as Rajasthan, Malwa, Maharashtra, Bombay and Salsette Islands, and in Betul and Amaravati districts. The figure of *Nandi* on the coins shows that Kalachuris were devotees of Pasupati Siva, and their discovery in such distant areas proves that they ruled over a fairly large territory comprising Gujarat, Maharashtra, Vidarbha and Malwa.

Krishnaraja's son and successor, Sankaragana (C. 575-600), a powerful monarch, is known from several records. His own Abhona plates of 595 A.D.,

1. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, p. 146.
2. Proceedings, Indian History Congress, 1943, pp. 44-45. Fleet connects them with Arjuneyas of Samudra Gupta's Allahabad Pillar Inscription (Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum Vol. III, p. 10), while Hiralal identifies them with Traikutakas (Annals of Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Vol. IX, pp 283-84). For mythological account of the Kalachuris See Joyanaka's *Prithvirajavijaya*, verses 110-130
3. Pargiter, Ancient Indian Historical Traditions, pp 41, 102, 144 etc.
4. This subject has been exhaustively treated by V. V. Mirashi in Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, pt. I, pp. 1–XXX.

found in Nasik district, were issued from his camp at Ujjain and record the donation of land in a village in that district. The Abhona plates, which describe him as lord of the entire land bounded by the estern and western seas[1], show that Sankaragana ruled over a vast empire, extending from Malwa to Maharashtra. That it comprised Gujarat is shown by the Sankheda copper-plate grant[2].

Buddharaja, son of Sankaragana, succeeded to the Kalachuri throne sometime in 600 A.D. The following year he was faced with an invasion from the Chalukya ruler, Mangalesa. The latter is stated to have completely routed Buddharaja, who fled leaving his whole treasure behind him[3]. Buddharaja, however, seems to have recovered his position and continued his hold over the whole country from Gujarat to Maharashtra. Buddhraja's successors are not known to us. They, probably, continued to rule at Mahishmati in a state of servitude under the Chalukyas But they did not remain in this subordinate position for long. An illustricus member of the Kalachuri family, named Vamaraja (*C.* 675-700), succeeded in carving out a large principality extending from the Gomati in the north to the Narmada in the south, in the Dahal country, with capital at Tripuri, at the close of the seventh Century. Since the time of Vamaraja, the Kalachuris came to be known as lords of the Chedi country.

Vardhana and Chalukya Dynasties

For a time the suzerainty of India was practically divided between two great monarchs, Harsha Vardhana (606-647 A.D.) and the Chalukya ruler, Pulakesin II (*C.* 610-642 A.D.). best known by his *biruda* Satyasraya. Pulakesin II of the Chalukya House of Badami vied with Harsha in the extent of his conquests and had raised himself to the rank of lord paramount of the south,[4] as Harsha was of the north. The sway of Harsha extended from the Himalayas to the river Narmada.[5] indicating that the northern part of East Nimar was included in the Vardhana Empire. That the whole of the District south of the Narmada, was part of the Chalukya kingdom is evident from the fact that the Narmada formed the northern limits of Pulakesin's empire.[6]

The northern king could not willingly endure the existence of so powerful a rival and essayed to overthrow him. And although, as *Hieuen Thsang* says, Harsha gethered troops from the five Indies, and summoned the best leaders from all countries, and himself went at the head of his army to punish and subdue these people, he could not conquer the Chalukyas.[7] Pulakesin guarded the passes

1. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, pt. I, p. 43
2. Ibid, p. 45.
3. Indian Antiquary, Vol. XIX, pp 17-18; Vol. VII, pp. 161 ff; and Epigraphia Indica, Vol. VI, p. 8.
4. The Yekkeri Inscription of Pulakesin II (Epigraphia Indica, Vol. V, p. 8)
5. R. K. Mookerji, Harsha, p. 43; V. A. Smith, Early History of India, 3rd edition, p. 341 But this is disputed by R. C. Mazumdar who rather believes that Harsha's suzerainty did not extend much to the south of the Yamuna
6. R. K Mookerji, Harsha, p. 34
7. Travels of Hieuen Thsang, Tr. by Samuel Beal pt. I-IV, p, 450 see also Watter's Yuan Chwang, p 239

on the Narmada so effectively that Harsha was constrained to retire discomfited, and to accept that river as his frontier. The Chinese pilgrim's account of this great conflict between the two paramount sovereigns is corroborated by the epigraphic evidence. It is claimed that Harsha's huge elephants fell in the battle[1] and that after his victory, Pulakesin assumed the title of *Paramesvara*.[2] The date of this battle is very controversial. Different scholars have suggested different dates varying between A.D. 620 and 630.[3]

Rashtrakutas

Darkness then descends upon the fortunes of East Nimar and the District sinks into oblivion until we emerge into light of the Rashtrakuta epoch. Dantidurga, also referred to as Dantivarman II, a feudatory of the Chalukyas of Badami, laid foundation of the future greatness of the Imperial Rashtrakuta dynasty. Embarking on a bold career of conquest, Dantidurga soon enlarged his small partimony in the Vidarbha region into a big empire.

He first marched against Malwa in A.D. 747 and proclaimed its conquest by performing *Hiranyagarva-dana* ceremony at Ujjain.[4] Next he proceeded against eastern Madhya Pradesh and brought it under his political influence. Thus, by about the middle of the eighth Centary, Dantidurga had become master of the Central and southern Gujarat and the whole of Madhya Pradesh and Vidarbha.[5] It is only reasonable to assume that East Nimar formed part of the Rashtrakuta Empire. The Samangad grant[6] of A.D. 754 shows that by that date Dantidurga had gained decisive victory over the Chalukya ruler Kirtivarman II and became master of the whole of Maharashtra. The Rashtrakuta sovereignty over the southern part of the District continued for over two centuries, till A.D. 972. when the Paramara ruler Siyaka II not only drove the Rashtrakutas out of these regions but even sacked their capital Malkhed.[7]

Paramaras

As we come to the Paramara period, we find ourselves on the firmer ground owing to the discovery of a series of contemporary inscriptions. The Paramara kingdom of Malwa, with capital at Dhar, was established shortly before A.D. 972. From then onwards, till the middle of the thirteenth Century, the north of the District was included in the Paramara kingdom. The founder, named Upendra, and early Paramara kings are known to have been vassals of the Rashtrakutas[8] But as stated above. Siyaka II (*C.* 948-72 A.D.), threw off the

1. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. VI, p. 10.
2. Indian Antiquary, Vol. VI, p, 87; Vol VIII, p 244, Vol. IX, p 125 and Vol. XI. p. 68.
3. The Classical Age, pp. 109 and 237.
4. Epigraphia Indica, Vol XVIII, p 252.
5. The Age of Imperial Kanauj, p 2.
6. Indian Antiquary, Vol. XI, p. 111.
7. The Age of Imperial Kanauj pp. 3-16.
8. Ibid p 94.

Rashtrakuta yoke in 972 A.D. and achieved independence of his dynasty. In the process, he pushed the southern boundary of his kingdom upto the Tapti[1] indicating his sway over the greater part of the District. Vakpati Munja and Bhoja, the seventh and the ninth king, respectively, are most illustrious members of the Paramara dynasty.

Munja (*C.* 974-95 A.D.), assumed the titles *Srivallabha*, *Prithvivallabha* and *Amoghavarsha*, and carried his arms far and wide. He was not only a great general and a great poet but also a great patron of art and literature. Unfortunately, he met a tragic end. Bhoja (*C.* 1010-55 A.D.), added Konkana to the Malwa kingdom, which extended in the south to the upper courses of the Godavari. His name is proverbial in tradition as that of a model king. An erudite scholar, Bhoja was the author of more than 23 books on varied subjects.

Of the several inscriptions found in the District, the oldest was discovered at Mandhata, being dated in 1055 A.D. It records the grant of a village to the Brahmanas of Amareshwara, a temple on the left bank of the Narmada at Mandhata for food and other purposes by Jayasimhadeva, (*C.* 1055-60 A.D.), successor of Bhoja.[2] Malwa was invaded by Somesvara II of the later Chalukyas and Karna of Gujarat. In the battle that followed, Jayasimha was slain and Malwa was occupied by the invaders, but it did not remain in their possession for long. Udayaditya (*C.* 1060-90 A.D.), a brother or cousin of Bhoja, drove them out of Malwa. His dominions extended upto Nimar District to the south.[3] Shortly after A.D. 1143, the whole of Malwa was annexed to the kingdom of Gujarat. For the next twenty years the princes of the Paramara dynasty, designated as the *Mahakumaras*, ruled the Bhopal region and the district of Nimar, Hoshangabad and Khandesh as petty rulers. Sometime in the seventies of the twelfth century, the Vindhyavarman recovered Malwa from the Chalukyas.[4]

Two inscriptions of the reign of Devapaladeva (*C.* 1218-32), were found at Harsauda (modern Harsud) and Mandhata. Harsud Stone Inscription, dated in V. S. 1275 (A.D. 1218), records construction of a Siva temple and a tank nearby by a merchant and states that Devapaladeva of Dhar was the then ruler.[5] Another inscription dated in V.S. 1282 (A.D. 1225), with the name of this king was found near the Siddhesvara temple at Mandhata. It records grant of a village Satajuna, still existing under the same name 13 miles south-west of Mandhata, to a number of Brahmanas after the king had bathed in the Reva (Narmada), while staying at Mahishmati which, as discussed in detail earlier, is equated with Mandhata Inscription records not only names of the donees but also name of father, grandfather, place of origin, *gotra* and *sakha*, epithet used by each one

1 Ibid, pp 95-96; The Struggle for Empire, pp. 68-71.
2 Epigraphia Indica, Vol. III, pp. 46, ff, Hiralal, Inscriptions in the C. P and Berar. p 74
3 The Struggle for Empire, p. 68.
4 Ibid, p 70
5 Indian Antiquary, Vol XX, pp 310-11, Journal, Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol XXVIII, pp 1 to 8, Inscriptions in the C. P. and Berar, p. 77.

of them. The donees were connected with far-flung places of the country like Mathura, Jodhpur, Tripuri, Akola, the country between the Himalayas, etc.

The list of donees reveals an interesting feature. In case of 20 out of 32 donees, the same epithet is borne by grandfather, father and son; in 7 cases the grandfather and father have the same epithet, but the son has a different one; and in one case the epithet of father and son is the same while that of grandfather differs. In the four remaining cases we have the sequence· Dikshit, Awasthi, Shukla, Upadhyaya, Agnihotri, and the like. It is revealing, for it shows that the family names were not still stereotyped in the families since the donee and his father and grandfather have not the same distinctive designations or epithets.[1]

The remaining two inscriptions, both of which are on copper-plates and discovered at Mandhata, refer themselves to the reign of Jayasimhadeva *alias* Jayavarman (C. 1255-75), described as lord of Dhara. The first of these, dated in V. S. 1317 (A.D. 1261), records grant of a village Vadauda (the village Burud, 22 miles from Mandhata), in Mahuada *pathak* (Mohod, 28 miles from Mandhata), by Pratihara Gangeyadeva to three Brahmanas after bathing at the confluence of the Reva and the Kapila, near Amaresvara temple. This charter was later ratified by Jayavarman while he was staying at Mandu.[2] The other one, dated in V.S. 1331 (A.D. 1274), is a charter issued by *Sadhanika* (a commander of the army), Anayasimhadeva, with the permission of the Paramara king Jayavarman, granting four villages to a number of Brahmanas residing in the Brahmapuri (i.e. the Brahmana settlement at Mandhata).[3] It is evident from these inscriptions that the north of East Nimar was under the sway of the Paramaras from the beginning of the ninth to the last quarter of the thirteenth Centuries.

During the period from the ninth to the twelfth Centuries, Asirgarh and the surrounding country, is stated to have been held by a family of Rajputs known as Tak. Chand Bardai, the court poet and minister of the famous Chauhan king Prithviraj, mentions the Tak from Asir as one of the chiefs who had opposed an invasion of the Muhammadans at Chitor as early as the ninth Century. According to Chand, the standard bearer, Tak of Asir was again in 1191 one of the most distinguished leaders in the army collected by Prithviraj to oppose the advancing tide of Muhammadan conquest, and at the battle of Tarai, at which Shihab-ud-din Ghori was defeated, he is mentioned by Chand among the wounded.[4] Beyond this incidental mention Bardai, nothing is known about the Taks. The authenticity of facts, as narrated by the bard, cannot, however, be verified.

An event of note occurred in the history of East Nimar in the year 1296. Ala-ud-din Khalji, while returning from Devgiri after exacting tribute from the

1 Epigraphia Indica, Vol. IX, pp. 103 ff.
2. Ibid, pp. 117 ff
3 Ibid, Vol XXXII. pp. 139 ff.
4. Nimar District Gazetteer, p 24

Yadav ruler Ramchandra, overran Khandesh. At that time Khandesh was held by a chief styled the Raja of Khandesh, who would seem to have been the Chauhan ruler Rao Chand of Asirgarh. He is said to have had an army of 40,000 to 50,000[1] Ramchandra Yadav expected succour from Khandesh against the Muslim invaders.[2] Ala-ud-din stormed Asirgarh, "and Chand and all his family, with the exception of one son, was put to the sword." This son, prince Rainsi, aged two and a half years, being a nephew of the Rana of Chitor, was sent to him for protection[3]. Later, one of his descendants, named Rai Dewa,[4] became Raja of Haravati (country of the Harsa). He founded the city of Bundi which thereafter became capital of the Haras.[5] Invasion of Asirgarh was, however, little more than a passing raid. For some years, no Musalman troops were stationed in the Deccan.

The tradition has it that the Chauhans returned to Asirgarh hills and founded the family of the Rana of Piplod, a local land-holder. The Rana is stated to have had a genealogical tree extending back to 25 generations.[6] If it were true, it would lead to the conclusion that the Chauhans staged a come-back fifty years after the sack of Asirgarh by Ala-ud-din. "The Rana's family were originally established at Basirgarh higher up the Tapti valley, on the present eastern border of the District. Basirgarh is now hardly traceable in the forest, but it is related that it was formerly strongly fortified and was of considerable extent and importance[7]." In the fourteenth Century Basirgarh was attacked by the Gond Raja of Kherla, with whom Chauhans fought for several years. In spite of their continuous resistance, it is said, they were forced to vacate the valley and establish their new seat of power at Piplod of Sajni. The hill tracts to the south of the Tapti were held by petty chiefs who traced their descent from Sajni Chauhans.[8]

During the reign of Ala-ud-din Khalji, Malwa was annexed to the Khalji empire in 1305 as one of the provinces[9] while the territories of eastern Nimar, south of Malwa were included in the newly conquered important province of Deogiri, which was later renamed Daulatabad. The northern part of the District, thereafter, continued to be ruled by the Governors of the Khalji and Tughluq Sultans as part of Malwa, till the end of the fourteenth Century.[10] Following Timur's invasion, forces of disruption set in and the Tughluq empire disintegrated,

1. Firishta, Tr. by Briggs, Vol. I, p. 307.
2. Ibid. p. 309.
3. James Tod, Annals and Antiquities of Rajasthan, Vol II, pp. 369-70.
4. According to Nainsi and the modern scholars, Dewa, the founder of Hadas of Bundi, was ninth in succession to Manikyaraya, the youngest son of Asaraj or Asvaraj of Nadol (Nainsi, Vol I, p. 104).
5. James Tod, Annals and Antiquities of Rajasthan, Vol II. p. 372
6. Nimar District Gazetteer, 1908, P. 25
7. Ibid
8. Ibid.
9. The Delhi Sultanate, p 29.
10. K. S. Lal, *Khalji Vansh Ka Ithas*, pp 165 and 256, Mahdi Hussain, Tughluq Dynasty pp 105-7; Nimar Distsict Gazetteer, p. 26.

and independent principalities were established in many parts of the country. Among others, Dilwar Khan Ghuri, the Governor of Malwa, declared independence and assumed the paraphernalia of royalty in 1401[1]. From then on, the north of the District seems to have remained a part of the Malwa kingdom. Dilwar Khan died in 1405 A.D. and was succeeded by his son Alp Khan, who assumed the title of Hushang Shah. The latter carried on successive raids against Kherla in Betul District and finally incorporated it in the Malwa Kingdom in 1422.[2] It is, therefore, very likely that the intermediary territory of Nimar through which successive invasions were carried on against Kherla was included in Hushang's dominions. It is also stated that Hushang Shah encouraged the Rajputs to settle in the wild tracts of Nimar with a view to utilising them as a strong buttress against any possible aggression[3] from the south.

Faruqi Dynasty

For about two and a quarter centuries Khandesh, which included the Tapti valley, was under the rule of the Faruqi dynasty. Malik Raja,[4] the founder of the principality of Khandesh, was son of Khan Jahan Faruqi, whose forbears were among the respectable nobles of Ala-ud-din Khalji and Muhammad Tughluq and who had himself held high office under the latter monarch.[5] The distintive epithet applied to his dynasty is derived from his claim to descent from Khalifah Umer Faruq.[6] Being excessively addicted to the chase, and having caught the attention of some of the courtiers on a hunting party, Malik Raja was admitted into the *Gholam Khas* or the bodyguard of Firuz Tughluq. On one occasion, he attracted the notice of the Sultan by supplying him with food at the time of dire need.[7] As a reward for the timely help, the grateful monarch conferred on Malik Raja the districts of Thalner and Karanda (Kuronde) and raised him to the command of 2,000 horse in the year 1370.

1. Tabaqat-i-Akbari. Tr. by B. De, Vol. III, p. 468; Firishta, Vol. I, p. 282.
2. Cambridge History of India, Vol. III, p. 351; Betul District Gazetteer, pp. 30-34
3. Hiralal, Madhya Pradesh ka Itihas, p. 73.
4. Abdullah Muhammad, author, of the *Zafar-al-Walih*, stayled the first ruler of Khandesh as Raja Ahmad. E. Denison Ross also calls him Raja Ahmad or Malik Ahmad; The Cambridge History of India, Vol. III, p 294.
5. Firishta, Tr. by Briggs, Vol. IV, p. 280. But as the title of Khan Jahan is not to be found in the lists of the amirs of Ala-ud-din and Muhammad Bin Tughluq given by Beran, W. Haig is with Abudullah Muhammad in his opinion that Raja Ahmad was the son of Khawaja Jahan, minister of the founder of the Bahmani dynasty of the Deccan. For details see Indian Antiquary, Vol. XL VII, pp, 113-14.
6. Firishta, op. cit, p. 284.
7. Firuz, during his disastrous retreat from Sind to Gujarat, while hunting wandered far from his camp and was resting, weary and hungry, under a tree when he saw a solitary sportsman with a few hounds. He asked him if anything could be procured to eat. He replied that he carried some game and if the Emperor be pleased, he would instantly strike a light and dress it. Upon learning that Malik Raja was son of Khan Jahan, the Emperor, who was well acquainted with Khan Jahan, decided to promote him. (Firishta, op. cit.; p. 281.)

Soon, Malik Raja marched against the neighbouring principality of Baglana, then ruled by the Rathor Chief Baharji, and compelled that ruler to acknowledge the suzerainty of Firuz. This victory enabled Malik Raja to send fifteen elephants, a quantity of pearls and jewels, several camel loads of muslins and other manufacturers of Khandesh to the Sultan. This service was rewarded by promotion to the command of 3,000 horse and government of the whole province of Khandesh with the title of *Sipah Salar* (Commander-in-Chief). In a few years Malik Raja was able to muster a force of 12,000 horse and, in order to augment his revenue, he levied contributions from the Chiefs of Gondwana as far as Garha-Mandla.[1]

Asirgarh was at that time ruled by a herdsman, known as Asa Aheer. He was, we are told, one of the principal land-holders of the country and was in possession of much agricultural wealth.[2] Shortly before the assumption of power by Malik Raja, it is stated, that there was a severe famine in Khandesh and Gondwana, except in Asir region which was in a prosperous condition. Asa, the king of Asirgarh, had at that time many store houses, both in Khandesh and Gondwana, which his agents opened in order to sell the food-grains. At the instance of his charitable wife he distributed food to the poor, the aged and the decrepit without payment. With a view to giving relief to the starving people, Asa was induced to have the old walls of Asir town levelled, and to cause a fort to be built in masonry, thereby giving employment to a large number of people.[3] When Malik Raja assumed authority over Khandesh, Asa, being peace loving and unambitious man, was the first of all the land-holders to acknowledge fealty to him and helped him in innumerable ways. Malik Raja was convinced that possession of fort of Asir, in the centre of Khandesh, was of utmost importance but he felt himself under too many obligations to Asa to wrest it by force out of his hands.

Towards the end of the reign of Firuz, when the authority of Delhi grew ever feebler, Malik Raja anticipated his neighbours in Gujarat and Malwa and, in 1382, ceased to remit tribute and began to conduct himself as an independent prince. After the death of Firuz in 1398, Malik Raja declared his complete independence of the Delhi Sultanate.[4] He also strengthened his position by a marriage between his son, Malik Nasir, and the daughter of the first of the Ghori

1. Firishta, op. cit., p. 282.
2. Firishta gives an interesting account of the family of the Aheer Chief of Asirgarh Asa's ancestors, he says, had at an early period built a wall round the hill of Asir in order of protect their numerous herds of cattle from the hands af robbers, which infested the mountains. Asa, who succeeded to his father's property, possessed 5,000 buffaloes, 5,000 cows, 20,000 sheep and 1000 breed mares For the purposes of husbandry as well as for his own protection, he employed 2,000 retainers. The farmers both of Gondwana and Khandesh, whenever they were in distress, always found relief by applying to Asa Aheer.

   Briggs conjectures that Asa was, probably, one of the hereditary provincial governers of the court of Deogiri before the conquest of the Deccan by the Mahommedans.
3. Firishta, op. cit., pp. 287 88. This work went by the name of the fort of Asa Aheer, and was afterwards called Asir.
4. Delhi Sultanate, p. 169.

sovereigns of Malwa, Dilwar Khan. In vain, he tried to in vade Gujarat, but the tables turned against him and he had to sue for peace.[1] Malik Raja became a disciple of the saint Zain-ud-din of Daulatabad and received from him the 'garb of desire and assent', which was so long as the dynasty lasted, carefully handed down from ruler to ruler.[2] He had two sons, Malik Nasir[3] and Malik Iftikhar.[4] He nominated the former as his successor and, on the latter he bestowed the fort and disrtict of Thalner. Malik Raja died on the 19th April, 1319, and was buried at Thalner.

Malik Nasir, who succeeded his father on the throne, also received many personal favours from Asa, and knew from his peaceable disposition that he never would give him an excuse to attack him. He, therefore, formulated a design and seized the hill fort of Asir by treachery. Pretending that the Rajas of Baglana, Antur and Kherla threatened him and that the forests of Thalner and Lulling offered him no safe retreat, he begged Asa to allow his family into the fort of Asir. Asa willingly consented and made necessary arrangements in the fort. But Malik Nasir employed treachery, which has been described by Firishta in the following words.—

> "On the first day several *dolies* with women came into the place, and were visited by Asa's wife and daughter. On the second day a report arrived that two hundred *dolies*, filled with the wife, monther and the rest of Malik Nuseer's family were coming. Asa accordingly ordered the gates to be thrown open to receive them, and went with all his sons a considerable way from the female apartments to meet them; but what was his astonishment, when, instead of women, he found the *dolies* filled with armed soldiers, who leapt out and murdered him with the whole of his family, not leaving a male child of his race. The inhabitants of the fort were so dismayed that they fled with their families from a scene of such horror Malik Nuseer, who was at this time in the fort of Lulling, on hearing the success of his plan, repaired to Asir, and employed himself in strengthening the fortifications."[5]

Malik Nasir, thereafter fixed his headquarters at Asirgarh. On hearing the news of the capture of Asirgarh by Nasir Khan, Saint Zain-ud-din, the spritual guide of his family, came from Daulatabad to congratulate him on his success. On his advice Nasir built two cities, Zainabad and Burhanpur on opposite banks of the Tapti. Zainabad was named after Zain-ud-din and Burhanpur after Sheikh Burhan-ud-din, a famous saint of Daulatabad, whose body is said to be buried

1. Ibid.
2. Bahadur, son of Raja Ali Khan, the last ruler of the Faruqi dynasty, possessed this precious relic
3. He is mentioned Ghizni in Ayeeno-i-Akbery, Tr. by Jarret, Vol, II, p. 234 Welesley Haig says that Malik Nasir was entitled Jahangir Khan.
4. Haig mentions him as Hasan—Cambridge History of India Vol. III p. 296.
5. Firishta, op. cit., pp. 289-290.

at Burhanpur[1] Zain-ud-din, Firishta states, encamped on the eastern bank of the Tapti, while Nasir with his family occupied the western bank of the river. When the latter tried to persuade the former to accompany him to Asirgarh, the saint refused to cross the river saying that he was not permitted to do so by his preceptor Saint Burhan-ud-din of Daulatabad. Zain-ud-din is said to have begged of Nasir Khan "to build a town on the eastern bank of the river, and call it after himself, Zainabad, and a city on the western, where he was himself encamped, to be called Boorhanpoor, in honour of the famous Sheikh Boorhan-ood-deen of Dowlutabad, and he recommended also, that he should make the latter his capital; both of which towns were accordingly built: and Boorhanpoor afterwards became the capital of the Farooky dynasty."[2]

Nasir Khan did not like the partition of kingdom and was determined to undo it He in A.D. 1417, obtained assistance from his brother-in-law, Sultan Hushang Shah of Malwa, and captured Thalner fort, held by his brother Malik Iftikhar or Hasan. The latter was imprisoned in the fort of Asirgarh[3], but he subsequently retired to Gujarat and settled there.[4]

After capturing the fort of Thalner, the armies of Malwa and Khandesh, invaded Gujarat where Sultan Ahmad was ruling. Sultan Ahmad marched with a huge army towards Khandesh and sent a detachment under Malik Mahud Turk in advance. The advance of this General compelled Ghazny Khan, son of Hushang, to flee to Mandu with his contingent and Nasir Khan to retire to the fort of Thalner,[5] which was besieged by the Gujarat army. Nasir Khan had to purchase peace and accept suzerainty of the Sultan of Gujarat. The Sultan, in return bestowed the title of *Khan* on Nasir Since then all Faruqi kings were known as Khan, from which circumstance the country they ruled came to be known as Khandesh, the country of the Khans.[6] From this treaty dates estrangement between Khandesh and Malwa; for Nasir resented Ghazny's pusillanimous desertion of him at a critical juncture.

To strengthen his position, Nasir married his daughter to Ala-ud-din, the son of Ahmad Shah Bahmani. The alliance provided Nasir with a powerful ally both against Ahmad of Gujarat, by whom he was recently humiliated and against Hushang of Malwa, from whom he was estranged. The alliance was almost

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1. Firishta, op. cit., pp. 290-91 The story is, however, of doubtful authenticity for Burhan-ud-din's tomb is at Roza, near Daulatabad. It is not unlikely that Burhan-ud-din, who is buried at Burhanpur and after whom the city is named was a different person.
2. Forsyth, basing his statement on the manuscript of Saint Zain-ud-din gives a different version. He says it was Malik Raja, who was asked to build Burhanpur. But he could not do so owing to his pre-occupations and administrative problems. Later, Nasir Khan fulfilled the desire of his father. For details see settlement Report of Nimar 1870, p. 25.
3. Firishta, op cit, p. 292.
4. Cambridge History of India, Vol. III, p 297.
5. Ibid, p, 297.
6. Delhi Sultanate, p. 170.

immediately tested. In 1429, the combined army of the Bahmani Sultan and Nasir marched against Gujarat in support of Kanha, king of Jhalwar, but it was defeated by the Gujarat army which laid waste a part of Khandesh.[1]

Nasir's relationship with the Bahmanis did not prove lasting. On hearing from his daughter of her ill treatment by his son-in-law, Ala-ud-din, Nasir suspended all friendly relations with him in 1436. Soon after, he invaded Berar which was part of the Bahmani kingdom, but was quickly dislodged, and retreating towards Burhanpur, was disastrously routed at the pass of Rohankheda, about twenty miles south of that place. He then fled to the frontier fortress of Lulling. Burhanpur was completely sacked by the Bahmani army. All the public buildings at Burhanpur were destroyed and burnt, Nasir Khan's place too was destroyed to its foundations. In the loot there were 70 elephants and many guns, then scarce, and valuable articles.[2] Nasir Khan died in A.D. 1437. He was burried in the family vault at Thalner.

Miran Adil Khan and Miran Mubarak

The regime of the next two Faruqi kings was uneventful. Nasir Khan was succeeded by his son Miran Adil Khan (1437-41). He obtained aid of the king of Gujarat to expel the Deccan troops from Khandesh. He was, probably, assassinated[3] in Burhanpur on April 28, 1441, and was buried at Thalner by the side of his father.

Miran Mubarak Khan succeeded to the throne on his father's death. After a peaceful reign of seventeen years, he died on June 5, 1457.

Adil Khan II (1457-1503)

Mubarak's eldest son Adil Khan II succeeded the former on the thorne. His reign is notable in many respects. Under him Khandesh is said by Firishta to have attained greater prosperity than ever before. He was a vigorous and capable ruler with administrative genius. He exerted every nerve of his to restore peace and order in his kingdom and succeeded to some extent in bringing efficiency in the administrative set-up of his country. He extended his sway over the Gondwana as far as Garha Mandla by forcing the Rajas of those regions to acknowledge fealty to him. Adil Khan also freed his country from the depredations of the Kol and Bhil robbers, thus making the roads safe for travellers throughout his dominions. The name of this King is also associated with building activities. He strengthened the fortification of Asirgarh by constructing the strong outwork, known as Malaigarh, fortified Burhanpur by constructing a citade' on the Tapti and built many fine palaces and a mosques at Burhanpur. Adil Khan carried his arms as far as Jharkhand, known as Chhota Nagpur, from which circumstance he is known as Shah-i-Jharkhand (king of the forest).

1. Firishta, op. cit., pp. 293-294.
2. Indian Antiquary, Vol. XLVII, p. 118; Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 28,
3. According to Firishta, Adil Khan suffered martyrdom.

After strengthening his position, he declared in clear terms his independence of the Gujarat monarchy by stopping payment of tribute. Consequently, Mahmud Shah Begarha, contemporary king of Gujarat, invaded Khandesh and compelled Adil Khan by his superior force to retreat within the walls of Asirgarh and to pay the arrears of tribute in A.D. 1498. The Khandesh ruler died in A.D. 1503[1]. Till his last days he always maintained friendly relations with his suzerain and visited his court. As stated earlier, under the rule of Adil Khan II, country of Khandesh saw great prosperity, Besides agriculture, the trade and manufacture of fine cloth, interwoven with gold and silver wires, flourished in the kingdom under his patronage. Cotton was extensively produced in Khandesh. Manufacture of fine muslins, which later on enjoyed high pitch of prosperity, by this time became the staple industry of the province[2].

Daud Khan (1503 10)

Adil Khan II left behind him no male issue and was, therefore, followed by his younger brother Daud Khan. Though Daud was the ruler, two Mughal brothers, Hussain Ali and Yar Ali, were exerting great influence over the king, who appointed Hussain as the *Wasir* with the title of Hisam-ud-din On the instigation of this person, Daud Khan contrived invasion of Ahmadnagar, where Sultan Ahmad Nizam Shah was ruling. When the latter came to know about Daud's intention, he took the offensive and marched into Khandesh Daud was forced to retire into the fort of Asir, whereupon he sought help from Sultan Nasir-ud-din of Malwa. The latter sent him the required aid, which induced Nizam Shahi army of Ahmadnagar to leave Khandesh. But Daud Khan had to pay the price by having the *Khutba* to be read in the name of Nasir-ud-din Khalji of Malwa. After an inglorious rule of seven years, Daud Khan died in A D. 1510.[3]

Adil Khan III (1510-20)

Daud Khan was succeeded by his son Ghazni Khan, who was poisoned by Hisam-ud-din after two days of his succession[4] There was no male relation of Daud Khan in Khandesh. Adil Khan or Alam Khan[5] a distant connection of Faruqi family, residing at Ahmadnagar was, therefore, invited and installed on the throne by some nobles, including Hussain Ali, the Mughal, with the backing of Ahmad Nizam Shah of Ahmadnagar and Imad-ul-Mulk of Berar, who pitched their camps at Burhanpur with forces. But Malik Ladan, who was in command of the fort of Asir, refused to acknowledge the new King. In the meanwhile Sultan Mahmud Shah of Gujarat marched in person to install his grandson Adil

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1. Some say Adil Khan died in 1501. His body was buried at his request near the palace of the Daulat Maidan in Burhanpur—Firishta, op. cit, p 229.
2. Longman's History of India, pp. 452-53.
3. Firishta, op cit,, p. 303.
4. Ibid; Bharatiya Vidya Bhawan's History and Culture of Indian People, Vol. VI, p 172,
5. It is nowhere explained whose son Alam Khan was and on what grounds his claim to the throne rested.

Khan[1] on the throne. He was supported by Ladan Khan in his plan. The news of his arrival frightened Ahmad Nizam Shah of Ahmadnagar and the Berar Chie who left Burhanpur, leaving money and men to support the Ahmadnagar candidate. When the forces of Gujarat reached Burhanpur, troops of Ahmadnagar fled with the pretender. Hisam-ud-din joined the King of Gujarat and for this gesture was placed in charge of Thalner. Thus, Mahmud Begarha succeeded in placing his candidate, Adil Khan, on the throne and gave him the title of Azam Humayun.[2]

Adil Khan III, found the bed full of thorns. He had to face sinister intrigues and conspiracies, carried on by some of the nobles headed by Hussain Ali. In spite of these odds, Adil safeguarded his interests and defended his kingdom by cementing his aliance with Gujarat by marrying the daughter of Muzaffar Shah, the brother of Mahmud Begarha of Gujarat.[3] He managed to put to death Hisam-ud-din, who was found engaged in conspiracies to overthrow him and to install once again the Ahmadnagar candidate. It is said Hisam was invited to Burhanpur by Adil Khan and was assassinated under the latter's orders. This measure restored to Adil Khan III the whole of the Thalner district which formed nearly half of his territory and also removed an ambitious and powerful rival.[4] In A.D. 1517, Adil Khan joined Sultan Muzaffar Shah II of Gujarat, his father-in-law, in his expedition to Malwa. The King died in A.D. 1520. He is said to have constructed a mausoleum and a mosque at Burhanpur. His mother is also associated with the erection of a mosque at Burhanpur.

Miran Muhammad Khan (1520-37)

Miran Muhammad Khan, entitled Miran Muhammad Shah,[5] the son of Adil Khan III, succeeded his father on the throne. He unwisely embroiled himself in wars between the kings of Ahmadnagar and Berar by taking side of the latter. Combined armies of Berar and Khandesh were defeated in 1526 by Burhan Nizam Shah of Ahmadnagar and the King of Berar was forced to seek refuge in Khandesh. Miran Muhammad Shah I treated him well and issued an appeal to Bahadur Shah of Gujarat for help. The King of Gujarat lost no time in coming to their rescue. He marched to Nandurbar and there he was entertained with all the honours of a suzerain by Miran Muhammad I, upon whom he conferred the title of Shah and, subsequently, gave his sister in marriage.[6] The wars still continued but came to an end in A.D. 1529. Bahadur Shah turned the scale in favour of his allies. Both Ahmadnagar and Berar had to consent to read *Khutba* in the name of Bahadur Shah.

1. Also called Adam Khan, he was great great grandson of Hasan Khan who had been expelled by his brother Nasir Khan and had fled to the court of Ahmad Shah of Gujarat. He was grandson of Mahmud Shah Begarha—Cambridge History of India, Vol. III, p. 313.
2. Firishta. op, cit., p. 304.
3 Ibid.
4 Ibid, p 305
5. He was son of the sister of Bahadur Shah of Gujarat.
6. Cambridge History of India, Vol. III, p. 324.

In A.D. 1530, Muhammad Shah I joined Sultan Bahadur Shah in latter's invasion of Malwa and Chitor (1534) and fought bravely. In the following year, Muhammad received warmly the Shah of Gujarat and Nizam Shah of Ahmadnagar both of whom were then on a good-will visit to Burhanpur. After his conquest of Gujarat, the Mughal Empror Humayun, marched into Khandesh and visited Burhanpur and Asirgarh via Baroda, Broach and Surat,[1] in A.D. 1536. Miran Muhammad Faruqi begged the Emperor to spare his kingdom from the ravages of war, and at the same time wrote to Ibrahim Adil Shah I of Bijapur, Sultan Quli Qutb Shah of Golkunda and Darya Imad Shah of Berar proposing a league for the defence of the Deccan The need, however, for such an alliance did not arise as the imperial operations were confined to a military promenade through Khandesh, whence Humayun returned to Mandu.[2] After the withdrawal of Humayun from Mandu, Miran Muhammad Shah aided by Bahadur Shah's forces and others recaptured Mandu.[3] After the tragic death of Bahadur Shah in 1537 without an heir to succeed Muhammad Shah, whose recognition of his title 'Shah' by Bahadur Shah was understood to have indicated a wish that he should succeed him,[4] was invited to ascend the throne of Gujarat. Muhammad Shah set out from Burhanpur to ascend the throne of Gujarat but died on May 24, 1537, while on his way.

Mubarak Khan II (1537-1566)

Muhammad's sons being minor, Mubarak Khan or Mubarak II succeeded his brother Muhammad Shah I, and entertained a vain hope to receive summons for the throne of Gujarat. But the nobles of Gujarat, instead of inviting him, decided to enthrone Mahamud Khan, son of Bahadur's brother Latif Khan, who during his uncle's reign had been placed in the custody of the late Sultan of Khandesh. Mubarak would not surrender Mahmud to become the King of Gujarat until a force under Ikhtiyar Khan invaded Khandesh.[5] Mubark II could not resist, and the victorious general carried Mahmud with him to Ahmadabad, where he was enthroned as Mahmud Shah III. The King of Khandesh made another attempt in company with Imad-ul-Mulk of Gujarat, who sought hospitality at Burhanpur after his flight from Gujarat, to secure the throne of Gujarat but was defeated and forced to shut himself in the fort of Asirgarh The royal army of Gujarat laid waste Khandesh However, after some time, the relations between Gujarat and Khandesh were set right and Mahmud bestowed upon Mubarak, Nandurbar as promised when the former was in the custody of Khandesh.[6]

1 Ibid, p. 333.

2 Ibid, According to Firishta the occupation of Burhanpur was averted because of Sher Shah's march to Delhi which obliged Humayun to return through Malwa to Agra.

3 Firishta, op. cit., pp. 311-12

4. Cambridge History of India, Vol. III, p 334. Muhammad Shah found his claim to the throne a valid one not only on the grounds already mentioned but also on the grounds of strong kinship having his wife, mother and grandmother from the royal family of Gujarat.

5. Ibid, p. 335; Firishta, op cit. pp. 144, 313

6. Firishta, op. cit, pp. 314-15

By this time important changes had taken place in the Northern India. Akbar, the Great Mughal, had ascended the throne and consolidated his position. It was in Mubarak's reign that the army of Khandesh first measured swords with the troops of Akbar, and defeated them. The imperial army conquered Malwa in A.D. 1561 and its King, Baz Bahadur, was forced to take refuge in Khandesh. He was pursued by the Mughal General Pir Muhammad, who laid waste Khandesh with great cruelty and sacked Burhanpur. By his orders, general massacre took place. Many learned men and Saiyids were decapitated in his presence.[1] To quote Firishta, "he devastated the country, sacked the city, dishonoured the females and committed enormity unfit to relate." On their retreat, however, laden with plunder, they were overtaken by a force got together by the rulers of Malwa, Khandesh and Berar and cut to pieces on the banks of the Narmada The army marched on to Mandu where Baz Bahadur assumed reins of Government. Mubarak Shah died in A.D. 1566. During his reign he seems to have cast big guns. They bear inscriptions mentioning his name and year of casting. One gun bears the date A. H. 961 corresponding to A.D. 1554. A more direct contact with Khandesh was established in 1564, when Akbar proceeded to Malwa to hunt out the rebel governor Abdulla Khan Uzbek. While encamped at Mandu the Emperor demanded the hand of daughter of Mubarak Khan in marriage and the lady entered his harem in September, 1564.[2]

Miran Muhammad II (1566-1576)

The reign of the next Faruqi King, Miram Muhammad Shah II, son of Miran Mubarak, was one continuous disaster. He, with the support of the army of Berar, foiled an attempt of the Gujarat forces to capture Nandurbar and, later on asserted his claims to the throne of Gujarat. He actually proceeded with a force of 30,000 horse but was severely defeated by the Gujarat forces, and lost all of his elephants, artillery and camp equipage while Khandesh was invaded and plundered.[3] His participation in wars between Ahmadnagar and Berar (1574) resulted in the sack of Burhanpur again by Murtaza Nizam Shah of Ahmadnagar. He was forced to take refuge in Asirgarh fort which was besieged. At last he had to purchase peace by paying a heavy indemnity of six lakhs *Muzafaris*.[4] He died in 1576.

Raja Ali Khan (1576 1596)

On Miran's death, his brother Raja Ali Khan, also known as Adil Shah, was chosen to succeed. Raja Ali Khan, was indeed, great just, wise, prudent and brave. Firishta tells us that "he was idol of his people and neither engaged in wars of conquest nor patiently permitted his country to be invaded "[5] In the summer of 1577, Akbar sent an expedition to Khandesh for securing submission of Raja Ali Khan.

1. Ibid, p 315, Elliot and Dowson, History of India as told by its own Historians, Vol. VI, p 275.
2. A. L. Shrivastava, Akbar the Great, Vol. I, p. 418.
3. Firishta, op cit, p. 318; Cambridge History of India, Vol. III, p 348.
4. A *Muzafary* was a base silver coin equal to half a rupee.
5. Firishta, op cit., pp, 321-22



Bibi-Ki-Masjid, Burhanpur



Jama Masjid, Burhanpur

The latter was in a dilemma. His sympathy lay with the States of the Deccan and he earnestly desired the maintenance of their independence. But he was also aware that their constant bickerings, their internecine strife, and their bitter and bloody domestic feuds not only exposed them to the risk of imperial aggression, but deprived him of the hope of any effectual assistance from any one of them, should he venture to stand forth as their champion. He could not hope to withstand alone the might of Akbar[1]. Therefore, to avoid the unequal contest, Raja Ali Khan dropped his hereditary royal title of Shah and accepted suzerainty[2] of Akbar. This marked an epoch in the Deccan policy of the Mughals; for Khandesh was used as a base for the future conquest of the Deccan. In 1591, Faizi was accredited to Khandesh and Ahmadnagar.

Meanwhile, a dispute arose between Ahmadnagar and Berar. In the contest that ensued, the army of Berar was routed. The Governor of the latter sought assistance of Raja Ali Khan, but finding no response, his soldiers sacked Burhanpur and proceeded towards Agra. Raja Ali Khan pursued and defeated him on the banks of the Narmada, snatching all his baggage and one hundred elephants.[3]

Later, Raja Ali Khan cemented his alliance with the Mughals by giving his daughter in marriage to the son of Akbar, prince Murad, and in turn, himself married a sister of Abul Fazl[4]. In 1597, the Mughal army, under the command of prince Murad invaded Ahmadnagar. Raja Ali Khan accompanied the army. He led the attack with great bravery but was killed by the chance explosion of powder magazine[5].

Raja Ali Khan's name is associated with the construction of many buildings. In A.D. 1588, he built Jama Masjid in the upper portion of the fort of Asir. There are Arabic and Sanskrit inscriptions in the mosque giving the name of the builder and list of Faruqi kings. At Burhanpur, too, Raja Ali Khan built the magnificent Jama Masjid in A.D. 1590. Arabic and Sanskrit inscriptions on the mosques give genealogy of the Faruqi kings, with the name of builder and the period of construction. Besides, Raja Ali Khan constructed *Idgah* at Asir, mausoleums and serai at Burhanpur and serai and a mosque at Zainabad. Three long iron one-pounder guns found at Asirgarh were manufactured and placed there by Raja Ali Khan in A.H. 998 (1589 A.D). One of the guns is a breech-loading cannon, which has been manufactured on precisely the same principle as the one built in Europe for the first time in the middle of the fifteenth Century.

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1 Wolesley Haig. Cambridge History of India, Vol IV, pp. 117-18

2 Raja Ali Khan, though outwardly professing obedience was really hostile at heart. He did not allow the *Khutba* to be read in Akbar's name except when imperial envoys happened to be present in Khandesh.

3. Firishta, op cit., pp 323-24

4 Ain-i-Akbari, Tr. by Jarrett, Vol. II, p 227; Ibid, Tr. by Blochmann, Vol. I, pp XXXIV and 335.

5. Firishta, op cit., p 324 His body was brought to Burhanpur, where he was buried with due honour.

Bahadur Khan (1596-1600)

Raja Ali Khan was succeeded by his son, Bahadur Khan.[1] When Abul Fazl reached near Burhanpur, in April 1599, he was welcomed by Bahadur Khan. The latter received the royal *firman* and the *khilat* with due ceremony. Bahadur Khan gave up the policy pursued by his father and refused to go in person with the Mughal army in the expedition to the Deccan and sent his son, Kabir Khan, with 2,000 horse. Unwilling as he was to owe allegiance to the Mughal Emperor, he trusted mighty fortress of Asir to protect him against any possible onslaught. Defying[2] Akbar, he declared his independence. When Prince Daniyal, the son of Akbar, passed by way of Burhanpur to Berar, Bahadur Khan remained in his citadel and refused to pay homage to him.[3] Later, when Akbar arrived at Mandu, Bahadur Khan defied him too and prepared to hold against him the fortress of Asir. This defiant attitude of Bahadur enraged Akbar, who marched towards Burhanpur in 1599 and occupied the city, without any opposition, on 8 April, 1600. The next day he ordered his army to open siege of Asirgarh. Abul Fazl was appointed Governor of Khandesh and he is said to have successfully established some order in the province.[4]

The celebrated fort of Asir was considered impregnable on account of its height and strength. The main fortress was surrounded by three powerful forts and two fortified hills. The historian Faizi Sarhindi who was present at the siege gives the following description of the fortress as it was at the close of the 16th Century:

> "It is situated on a high and strong hill," he writes, "and three small hills, each having a fort, stand around it like a halo round the moon. The ways of entrance and exit are difficult to discover. Near it there was no other hill commanding it, and no way of approach. All round was a level ground, and there were no trees or jungle to serve as a cover." "The fortress," he adds, "has one gate, and outside this gate there is another fort called Kamargarh, the walls of which are joined on both sides to the great fort. This was looked upon as an outwork, and was held by inferior ranks of men, such as musketeers and archers. Below this fort, but still on an elevated spot, is another fort called Maligarh, which also is very strong. In comparison with the fortress, it seems at the bottom of the earth; but compared with the surface of the ground, it looks half way upto the sky. This being the most advanced of the works, great care has been taken to strengthen it with guns and other implements. Below this was an inhabited place, called *Takhati*, as large as a city. In short, the fortress is one of the wonders of the world and it is impossible to convey an idea of it to anyone who has not seen it."[5]

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1. Abul Fazl says his name was Khizr Khan, who later took the name of Bhadur Shah, Ain-i-Akbari, Tr. by Jarrett, Vol. II, p. 227.
2. V. Smith, Akbar the Great Mogul, p 22.
3. Cambridge History of India, Vol. IV, p. 146.
4. Ibid.
5. Elliot and Dowson, *op cit.*, Vol. VI, pp. 139-141; Akbarnama, Vol. III, p. 777.

When the siege was opened by the Mughals, trenches were dug and batteries erected around Asirgarh; the most important batteries were of Khan-i-Azam, Asaf Khan, Shaikh Farid Bokhari, the Bakhshi of the Empire, and of Mirza Jani Beg of Thatta. The siege continued languidly for months without any fruitful result. Akbar, therefore, sent Abul Fazl to stimulate the activity of his army.[1] Later. he personally arrived at the scene, and encouraged his men by his presence and supervision. The forces of Bahadur Khan were under the command of Sadat Khan, son-in-law of Raja Ali Khan. Some days after, however, a soldier from the garrison of the fort was seduced who pointed out a secret path leading to the fort of Malaigarh Abul Fazl was directed to make use of the information. Consequently, a large number of ladders were prepared and troops were ordered to collect at the sound of the drums and trumpets. In the midnight of 28 November, 1600, which was dark and rainy, troops in three batches were sent, one after another to the top of the hill. The first batch, which was under Qara Beg, climbed Malaigarh through secret path, and broke open the gate. A large Mughal force poured into the fort, followed by Abul Fazl himself, and captured Malaigarh.[2]

Frightened by the fall of Malaigarh and realising a conspiracy among a section of garrison to hand him over to the Mughals, King Bahadur offered to surrender[3] and wait on Akbar. Khan-i-Azam went to Malaigarh and escorted Bahadur and his sons, Afzal Khan and Khudawand Khan, to Akbar's camp on December 10, 1600. After a formal audience with the Emperor they were placed under arrest.[4] But the fort, which was under the command of old but brave Abyssinian, Yaqut, was not surrendered even after Bahadur's arrival at the imperial camp.[5] The Mughal army, therfore, launched an attack to capture it. According to Jerome Xavier, another eye-witness at Asir, Yaqut tried to persuade the princes who were members of the royal family and confined in Asir to ascend and defend the throne but none dared to accept the position. "Would to God that ye were women" ejaculated the brave old man. and broken hearted took poison and died The garrison surrendered the fort into the hands of Abul Fazl's son Abdur Rahaman on 17 January, 1601.[6]

Inside the fort there were 1300 pieces of artillery and a number of cannon balls, which ranged from half a seer to two maunds in weight, was beyond

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1 Cambridge History of India, Vol IV, p. 147.

2. Akbarnama. Vol. III, p. 778

3. All the three historians, Abul Fazl, Faizi Sarhindi and Firishta, the first two of whom were eye-witnesses at the siege of Asirgarh. ascribe Bahadur's decision to surrender mainly to an epidemic on account of which 25,000 to 40,000 men had died. For details see F. Sarhindi's Akbarnama in Elliot and Dowson, Vol VI, P 145 and Firishta, Vol. IV, pp 326-27

4 Akbarnama, Vol. III, p 779

5. Haig says that Yaqut was instructed by Bahadur not to surrender the fort and to hold it to the last---Cambridge History of India, Vol IV, pp. 147-48.

6 A. L. Shrivastava, Akbar---the Great Mughal, p. 450. It is said that the Mughal diplomacy and gold were actively employed to bring about its capitulations. (R P Tripathi) Rise And Fall of the Mughal Empire, p 332.

computation. It was well provisioned with cereals, oil, water and other necessities. In anticipation of a prolonged siege, King Bahadur had collected one lakh of men in the fort and all kinds of cattle and fowl. An idea of the plenty inside the fortress could be formed from a remark of Faizi Sarhindi that after the termination of the siege large quantities of grain, oil and other necessities were found as if these had not been touched. The water supply too remained as it was at the beginning of the siege.[1] The treasures, jewels and other valuable property were taken possession of by the imperialists.[2]

Bahadur Khan was, later, sent to Gwalior in order that "he might get some enlightenment in school of the prison;" and his family was sent along with him. He was given an annual pension of 4,000 gold *mohars* and the other Khandesh princes, numbering seven, received 2,000 gold *mohars* each annually.

Bahadur Khan was the last ruler of Faruqi dynasty which ruled over Khandesh, including the southern part of East Nimar, for two hundred and thirty years. He is associated with the foundation of a large town called after him Bahadurpur, three miles east of Burhanpur. The king is also said to have constructed one mosque, now called Kali masjid, at Burhanpur.

The triumph of Mughal arms marked an important epoch in the history of this region It paved the way, though not in the reign of Akbar, for the conquest of the remaining parts of the Deccan. Akbar paid a visit to Asirgarh so as to inspect it personally. He stayed there for four days, and then returned to his headquarters at Burhanpur.[3] Nimar and Khandesh were now incorporated in the Mughal Empire. The northern part of the District was included in the *Subah* of Malwa, while the southern part was incorporated in the newly constituted *Subah* or province of Khandesh. Prince Daniyal, who reached Burhanpur on 18 February, 1601, was appointed the Governor of Khandesh, which the Emperor fancifully named Dandesh after Daniyal. After a few days, Khandesh and the subsequent conquests of Akbar in Berar and Ahmadnagar were formed into a viceroyalty under Daniyal.[4] The latter drank himself to death at Burhanpur[5] on 11 March, 1605 Jahangir writes of his brother in these words, "Daniyal was of pleasing figure, of exceedingly agreeable manners and appearance; he was very fond of elephants and horses. It was impossible for him to hear of any one as having a good horse or elephant and not take it from him. He was fond of Hindi songs, and would occasionally compose verses with correct idiom in the language

1. Elliot and Dowson, Vol. VI, p 140.
2. Akbarnama Vol. III, pp 780-782, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. VI, pp 142-146; Firishta, Vol. II, p. 290; Payne. Akbar and the Jesuits, pp. 105-108
3. A. L Shrivastava, op. cit., p. 455
4. Ibid, Ain-i-Akbari, Tr by Jarrett, Vol. II, p. 222.
5. When the condition of Daniyal deteriorated due to excessive drinking, Khan Khanan enforced strict prohibition on the prince. But when the road to bring wine was completely closed, writes Jahangir, Daniyal succeeded in getting wine in the barrel of his favourite gun. The rust of the iron was dissolved by the strength of the spirit and mingled with it and no sooner Daniyal drank of it, he collapsed.

of the people of India."[1] The *Subah* of Khandesh, with 32 *paraganahs*, yielded a revenue of 1, 26, 47, 067 Berari *Tankhas*.[2] After the conquest of Asir, this revenue was increased by 50 per cent, totalling 1,8,970,593 *tankahs* (Rs. 1,13,82, 355).[3]

From Akbar's conquests are doubtless to be dated most of the measures which brought about a regular settlement of the country, till then administered by a number of feudal barons, under the domination of the Ghuri and Faruqui kings. Most of these semi-independent chiefs were then reduced to the position of *jagirdars* or *zamindars*. The presence of Royal Court and rapid movements of imperial army at Burhanpur and in the region gave an impetus to agriculture and industries and it is said that during this period the District welcomed the regular cultivating classes migrated to it from the Deccan, North and Gujarat.[4] The Chauhans of Sajni do not seem to have lost their feudatory position till about the time of Aurangzeb,[5] and an inscription on the gate of Asirgarh records its construction in 1654 A.D. by Manohara Dasa Kumara, son of the Raja of Mandhata. Another inscription on the rock of Asirgarh records investiture of Raja Gopal of Mandhata with the title of Ali Vakai (of high dignity) and a *mansab* of 5,000 horse and of his laying the foundation of the main gate-way of Asir when he was in charge of the fort of Asir in 1602.[6]

Burhanpur being the capital of the frontier province and base from which expeditions started for the Deccan wars, its governorship was then considered most important and was mostly conferred on the royal prince. Accordingly, early in 1610, the Prince Parviz reached Burhanpur as the Governor of the province. The Prince fed his vanity by maintaining a bright royal court at Burhanpur. The Nimar region, situated as it has been on a very important route from Delhi and Agra to the Deccan, witnessed an array of military marches with glittering colours and a huge paraphernalia during the reign of Jahangir.

Sir Thomas Roe, an ambassador to Jahangir from King James I of England, visited Burhanpur and described the gorgeous decorations and splendour of the court and courtly etiquettes. Roe found Burhanpur, where he reached on 14 November 1615, a miserable and barren country, the town and villages all built of mud except the houses of the Prince, Khan Khanan and a few others. At Bahadurpur, there was storehouse of ordnance. Sir Thomas Roe saw Prince Parviz on 18th November, gave him valuable presents and requested his permission to establish a factory in the city. Parviz issued a firman on 30th November,

1 Tuzuk-i Jahangiri Tr. by Rogers and Beveridge, Vol. 1, p. 36.
2 A *tankah* was reckoned at 24 Akbari *dams*.
3 Ain-i-Akbari, Vol. II, Tr. by Jarret, revised by J N. Sarkar, p 233.
4 Nimar Settlement Report, 1870, p. 31; Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 32
5 Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 32.
6. Cunningham, Archaeological Survey Report, Vol IX, pp 110-11; Hiralal, Inscriptions in C. P and Berar, p 80 and Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 32.

1615.[1] Roe also records that the Prince was a nominal ruler but the real authority vested in the hands of the Khan Khanan.

During his seven years tenure of the office of the Governor of the Deccan, Prince Parviz had made no progress. Jahangir, anxious to complete his conquest of the Deccan, transferred Parviz to the easier charge of Allahabad in 1616[2] and Prince Khurram was nominated to succeed him. Before his departure, Jahangir bestowed on him the title of Shah.[3] He reached Burhanpur on the 6 March, 1617. On 24th August, 1617 at Burhanpur a daughter was born to Prince Khurram. She was named Roshan Ara Begum. The Mughal army under Khurram succeeded in gaining a peaceful victory. Malik Ambar agreed to surrender a large territory, including the fort of Ahmadnagar.[4] Jahangir was so pleased with Khurram's success that he conferred on him the title of Shah Jahan when the latter visited Mandu on 12 October, 1617.[5]

The much vaunted success of Shah Jahan proved temporary. The Deccan powers, through the efforts of Malik Ambar, jointly forced the Mughal army to fall back on Burhanpur. The Deccan army laid waste whole of the territory round Burhanpur and created a threat even to the fort of Mandu,[6] in 1620 At Burhanpur, Khan Khanan was in a miserable plight. He sent fervent appeals to the Court for help. Jahangir, therefore, again commissioned Shah Jahan to lead his forces to the Deccan,[7] and the expedition proved successful in its immediate objects. He relieved Mandu by sending some force and he himself forced the armies of the Deccan occupying Burhanpur region to withdraw. Shah Jahan now remained at Burhanpur and reorganised the administration which was dislocated due to constant warfare.

Sensing ominous signs on the issue of succession, Shah Jahan got Khusrav murdered in cold blood. The latter was a prisoner in the charge of Shah Jahan; for while starting on his Deccan campaign, he had secured custody of Khusrav from Jahangir. While some historians doubt Khurram's complicity,[8] Beni Prasad has adduced overwhelming evidence to prove his guilt.[9] A contemporary author, Muhammad Salih Kambu has also testified that Khusrav was assassinated on grounds of expediency. "To avoid suspicion the dead body of the late prince was taken with due honour round through the city of Burhanpur. The notables

1. The Embassy of Sir Thomas Roe to India, pp. 68-71, 81 The Citadel Called the *Lal Kila* was, probably, the scene of Roe's audience with Parviz
2. Cambridge History of India, Vol. IV, p. 164.
3. Tuzuk-i-Jahangiri, Tr. by Rogers and Beveridge, Vol I, pp 331 and 335.
4. Tuzuk-i-Jahangiri, Vol. I, p. 380.
5. Ibid, pp 393-397; Wakiat-i-Jahangiri. Elliot, Vol. VI, p. 352.
6. Cambridge History of India, Vol. IV, p. 168.
7. B. P. Saxena, History of Shah Jahan of Dihli, pp. 26-30, Tuzuk-i- Jahangiri, Vol. II, pp 155-56.
8. Journal, Royal Asiatic Society, 1907, p. 599; Elphinstone, History of India, Vol. II p 368
9. Beni Prasad, History of Jahangir, pp. 336-40

and officers accompanied the hearse chanting prayers, and muttering incantations."[1] Shah Jahan consolidated his position in the Deccan and he was not happy to leave Burhanpur when the Emperor commanded him to march with his troops to Qandahar in 1622.

The District was again the scene of Shah Jahan's hectic activities, when he raised the banner of rebellion against his father. Shah Jahan withdrew to the Deccan after being routed near Agra by the Mughal forces. Pursued by the Imperial forces under the command of Parviz and Mahabat Khan, Shah Jahan pushed on to Asirgarh, where Hisam-ud-din and Jalal-ud-din Husain Anju opened gates for him.[2] He remained there three or four days, attending to the victualling and preparation of the fortress, which he placed under the command of Gopal Das Gaud. When he departed for Burhanpur, he left some of his women there in charge of Gopal Das Gaud; but he took with him his three wives and children.[3]

Meanwhile the desertion of Khan Khanan and the passage of the Narmada by the Imperial army unnerved Shah Jahan. In utter confusion, he crossed the Tapti on 10 September, 1623. Parviz after pursuing him for some distance returned to Burhanpur.[4] Shah Jahan, hounded from place to place, reached near Allahabad after marching through Telmgana, Orissa, Bengal and Bihar. The Mughal army, in response to urgent summons from the court,[5] marched rapidly to Allahabad to deal with the rebels. Shah Jahan was again defeated.[6] The rebel Prince, after wandering in search of help, received assistance from Malik Ambar and the combined army laid siege to Burhanpur. But the Mughal forces led by Rao Ratan offered a fierce resistance. The assailants led serveral assaults but failed. For his services on this occasion, Rao Ratan was rewarded with the governorship of the city of Burhanpur.

While these operations were going on, Mahabat Khan and Parviz arrived in the Deccan a second time. This compelled Shah Jahan to raise the siege. After long sufferings and privations the rebel Prince besought his father to pardon him. He was asked to surrender Asirgarh and Rohtas, and to send to court his two sons, Dara and Aurangzeb as hostages. With his compliance, the rebellion came to a close in 1626 Khan Jahan Lodhi was appointed at Burhanpur in place of Mahabat Khan as guardian of Prince Parviz. The latter, some time afterwards, breathed his last at Burhanpur and Khan Jahan was confirmed as the Governor of the Deccan.[7] Jahangir died in 1627 and, after a short interlude, Shah Jahan ascended the throne.

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1. Quoted in History of Shah Jahan, p. 35.
2. Tuzuk-i-Jahangiri, Vol. II, p. 278.
3. Wakiat-i-Jahangiri, Elliot, Vol. VI, p. 338
4. B. P Saxena, op cit, p 47
5. Tuzuk-i-Jahangiri Vol. II, p 294
6. Ikbalnama, Elliot, Vol. VI, pp 413-14.
7. B P Saxena, op. cit, pp 52-53, Ikbalnama, Elliot, Vol. VI, p. 18.

The troubled conditions in the Deccan and the flight of Khan Jahan Lodhi from Agra induced Shah Jahan to move to the Deccan. He reached Burhanpur on the 1st March, 1630,[1] where he stayed for the following two years, conducting operations against Bijapur, Ahmadnagar, and Golkunda. During the Emperor's stay at Burhanpur, a great calamity overtook him in the midst of his successes in the Deccan, which left him melancholy for the rest of his life. Here he lost his beloved and favourite wife Mumtaz Mahall on 7 June 1631.[2] Her body was buried at first in the garden of Zainabad, across the river Tapti. Early in December of the same year, the remains were sent to Agra, escorted by Prince Shuja and Sati-un-Nisa, the chief aid-in-waiting of Mumtaz. Shah Jahan left Burhanpur on the 6 March, 1632 for the north after appointing Mahabat Khan as the Viceroy of the Deccan.

During the fourth and fifth years of Shah Jahan's reign an appalling famine desolated the Deccan including Nimar and Gujarat. The horrors of this terrible calamity have been thus described by Abdul Hamid Lahori in the *Padshahnama* "The inhabitants of these two countries were reduced to the direst extremity. Life was offered for a loaf, but none would buy, rank was to be sold for a cake but none cared for it; the ever bounteous hand was now stretched out to beg for food; and the feet which had always trodden the way of contentment walked about only in search of sustenance. For a long time dog's flesh was sold for goat's flesh, and the pounded bones of the dead were mixed with flour and sold. When this was discovered the sellers were brought to justice. Destitution at length reached such a pitch that men began to devour each other, and the flesh of a son was preferred to his love. The number of the dying caused obstructions in the roads. Those lands which had been famous for their fertility and plenty now retained no trace of productiveness."[3]

Shah Jahan directed the officials of Burhanpur, among others, to establish soup kitchens or almhouses, for the benefit of the poor and the destitutes. It was also ordered that so long as the Emperor remained at Burhanpur, 5,000 rupees should be distributed among the deserving poor every Monday. Thus on twenty Mondays one lakh rupees were given away in charity.[4]

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1 Ibid, p. 309., Here another daughter Husn Ara Begum was born on 13 April, 1630.

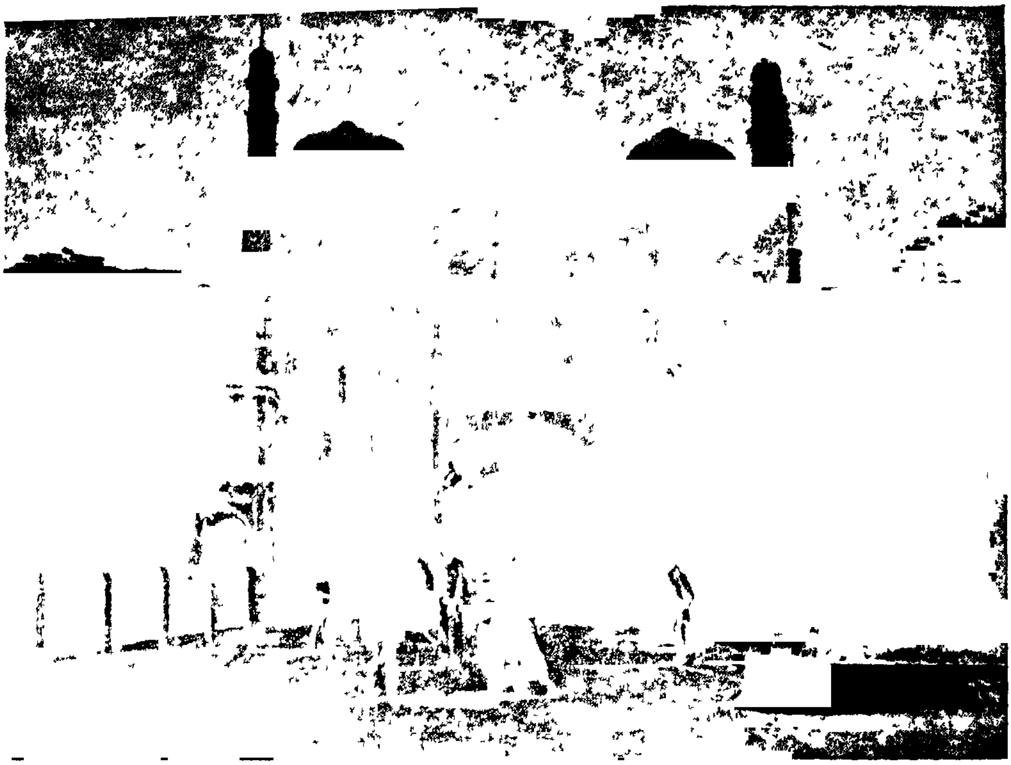
2. Cambridge History of India gives date as 17 June, 1631. Mumtaz delivered a female child. She could not survive the strain of delivery and began to sink rapidly. She asked Jahan Ara to call to her side the Emperor, who was in another apartment close by Shah Jahan quickly repaired to the room where his wife was lying. Mumtaz Mahall opened her eyes, commended her children to the care of her husband, and bade adieu. All this happened within such a short time that Shah Jahan was overwhelmed by the shock and burst into tears. For a week Shah Jahan did not appear in *Jharokha* The intensity of affliction turned his hair grey, and for the next two years he totally abstained from music and other similar entertainments, nor did he put on magnificent dress.—B. P Saxena, op. cit., pp. 309-10. See also Maasir-ul-umra, Hindi tr by Brijratna Das, pt. II, p. 409.

3. Padshahnama, Elliot, Vol. VII, p. 24.

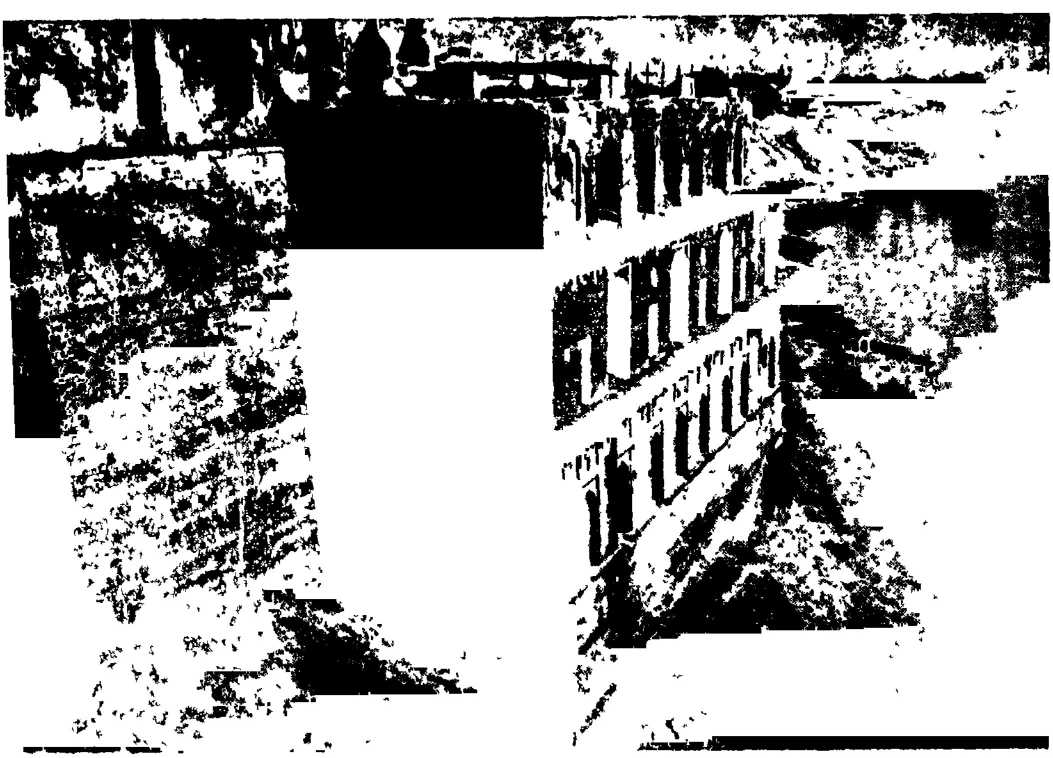
4. Padshahnama, Elliot, Vol. VII, pp. 24-25.



Ahukhana where Mumtazmahal's body rested for sometime, Burhanpur



City Gate, Burhanpur



Teental (Ruins of old palace), Burhanpur

With the conquests of Imperial Army in the Deccan, Shah Jahan divided the viceroyalty of the Deccan into two governments, viz., of Balaghat and Payinghat.[1] Khandesh was included in the latter, capital of which was at Burhanpur. It is stated that during the period of reorganisation of governments, the *Sarkars* Handia and Beejagurh, south of the Narmada, which included the northern part of the modern District of Nimar were transferred from the *Subah* Malwa to *Subah* Khandesh.[2]

The unsatisfactory state of affairs in the Deccan led Shah Jahan to march to these territories for the second time. He crossed the Narmada on 4 January, 1636, and was welcomed near Burhanpur by the Mughal officers stationed at Burhanpur. But he did not tarry here and, after celebrating his birthday outside the town, marched straight to Daulatabad.[3] In about six months, he succeeded in establishing his suzerainty over the southern kingdoms.[4] He left the Deccan at the beginning of July and appointed Aurangzeb as the Viceroy of the Deccan. It comprised four provinces, namely, Khandesh with capital at Burhanpur, Berar, Telingana and Daulatabad, yielding a total revenue of five crores of rupees a year.[5]

Aurangzeb continued to hold the charge of the Viceroyalty of the Deccan for the next eight years. During his tenure of office, Aurangzeb visited Agra twice, once for his marriage with Dilras Banu Begam in 1637, and a second time to see his sister Jahan Ara, who was badly burnt in 1644. Three weeks after his arrival there, he resigned his post.

In 1653, Aurangzeb was sent to the Deccan as its Viceroy for the second time. From November of that year, Aurangabad, then known as Khirki, was the headquarters of his Government. During his second viceroyalty, a complete reorganisation of the revenue system of these provinces was undertaken with the assistance of Murshid Quli Khan, who was appointed *Diwan* of Daulatabad and Telingana and subsequently of Berar and Khandesh [6]

The lenient assessment was accompanied by active measures to re-populate and reorganise the ruined villages Khandesh and Burhanpur attained the height of prosperity during the reign of Shah Jahan. Bernier (1656-1658) mentions that Khandesh had three *Sarkars*, with Burhanpur as the chief town and three hundred *Parganas* yielding Rs. 1,85,50,000 annually.[7] Another foreigner, Tavernier, who visited Burhanpur twice, speaks highly of the prosperity of this region. According to him Burhanpur was a large town, having considerable trade, where an enormous quantity of very transparent muslins and gold cloth were manufactured and

1 Cambridge History of India, Vol IV, p. 266.
2. Nimar Settlement Report, 1870, p. 33
3. B. P. Saxena, op. cit., p. 145.
4. J. N. Sarkar, History of Aurangzib, Vol. I p 41.
5 Padshahnama, Elliot, Vol. VII, p. 58.
6 J. N. Sarkar, op. cit., Vol. I, pp. 191-94; Elliot and Dowson, Vol. VII, p. 171.
7 Francois Bernier, Travels in the Mogul Empire, p. 458.

exported to Persia, Turkey, Russia, Poland, Arabia, Cairo and other places.[1] In the war of succession for the Mughal throne the Deccan, and particularly Khandesh and Malwa, remained the scene of stormy marches and Herculean preparations for the contest by Aurangzeb. Aurangzeb sent his elder son towards Burhanpur in January, 1658 and the next month he himself followed with the rest of his army. At Burhanpur he organised his army, and made preparations for further march towards the imperial capital. He stored all war ammunition at Burhanpur, where gun-powder was also prepared and lead for making shot was largely collected.[2] The recruitment of soldiers also went on apace. He left Burhanpur in the month of March.

The Marathas, who by this time wielded themselves into a powerful nation under Shivaji started raiding the territories of the Mughals. Jai Singh, the Viceroy of the Mughals at Aurangabad, tried to put an end to the rising Maratha power but he was not destined to achieve that end. He was recalled to the court and died on the way while halting at Burhanpur in July, 1667.[3]

Khandesh saw the first appearance of the Marathas under Shivaji,[4] early in December, 1670. Pursued by Daud Khan, Governor at Burhanpur, he plundered the large town of Bahadurpur, some three miles to the east of Burhanpur. During this raid Shivaji and his general Prataprao Gujar exacted deeds from the village officers agreeing to pay the *chauth* or one-fourth of the revenue to the Marathas, who duly returned to realise it during successive harvest seasons.[5] Shivaji twice raided the suburbs of Burhanpur in 1675 and 1679, respectively[6] Again in the winter of 1681, the Maratha forces under Sambhaji raided north Khandesh and plundered and looted Bahadurpur and suburbs of Burhanpur for three days (9 to 11 February, 1681) and carried an enormous amount of booty. Surprise was complete and none was able to save any property. Many respectable men slew their wives and children to save them from outrage and slavery; many houses were set on fire after being ransacked.[7] Prince Akbar writing to Aurangzeb said that 'the city of Burhanpur, a mole of beauty on cloak of earth, has become ruined and plundered.'[8]

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1. Jean Baptiste Tavernier, Travels in India, Vol. I, pp. 30 and 41; and Vol. II, pp. 8 and 42.
2. J N. Sarkar, op. cit., Vol. I, pp. 370-75.
3. According to Manucci he was poisoned by Aurangzeb
4. J. N. Sarkar, op. cit, Vol. I, p. 255. It is said that Shivaji visited Burhanpur, earlier in 1666, when he was given a royal reception and paid one lakh of rupees from the treasury, for the expenses of his army, under Aurangzeb's instructions—Balkrishna, Shivaji the Great, Vol. I, Pt. II, pp. 253-54.
5. Ibid, pp. 282, 299; Cambridge History of India, Vol. IV, p. 259
6. Orme, Historical Fragments, pp. 47, 84 and 85.
7. Muntakhabu-I-Lubab, Elliot and Dowson, Vol. VII, p. 306· J. N. Sarkar, op cit., Vol. IV, pp. 244-47; Cambridge History of India, Vol. IV, pp. 281-82
8. At the sack of the city of Burhanpur and its suburbs, the citizens of the place lodged the complaint with the Emperor that the Viceroy of the Deccan accepted bribe from the Marathas which led the Viceroy to allow wrong strategy in pursuing the Marathas.

Being a bigoted ruler, Aurangzeb reimposed *Jazya* tax on 12 April, 1679, to be realised from non-Muslim subjects. In the city of Burhanpur the total assessment under this head amounted to Rs. 850,000 in 1682.[1] "In Burhanpur the tax could be realised only by force. But Aurangzeb was inexorable and ordered the prefect of the city police to chastise every defaulter. This had the desired effect and strict collector like Mir Abdul Karim increased the yield of the tax from Rs 26,000 a year for the whole city to more than four times the amount in three months for half the city only (1682)."[2]

Prince Akbar's rebellion and Sambhaji's activities brought Aurangzeb to Deccan in 1681. He reached Burhanpur on the 13th November, where he stayed for a few months, organising a fresh offensive against the Marathas. But the imperialists met with little success.

Emperor Aurangzeb died in 1707. Bahadur Shah succeeded him on the throne Shahu, the grandson of Shivaji and the son of Sambhaji, was granted customary dues of *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* of the Deccan provinces, including Khandesh, by the successor of Aurangzeb since the middle of A.D. 1707.[3] Later, Emperor Muhammad Shah was compelled to issue imperial receipts for the collection of *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* from Khandesh and other Deccan provinces, in favour of Shahu, by the year 1719.[4]

The District was again the scene of Maratha depredations, in 1710, when a woman named Tulasi Bai, with about sixteen thousand horse, surrounded Raver town, seven *kos* from Burhanpur, demanding *chauth*. Mir Ahmad Khan, the Governor of the *subah*, was asked to pay rupees eleven lakhs as *chauth*. Mir Ahmad collected a large force and marched out of Burhanpur. Tulasi Bai met the former with five thousand select horse and the remaining force was sent to plunder Burhanpur Mir Ahmad Khan rushed to protect the city but was mortally wounded in the fight.[5]

In 1715 Burhanpur was the scene of another bloody battle between Husain Ali Khan, Amir-ul-Umara, whom Farrukh-Siyar appointed as the viceroy of the Deccan, and Daud Khan Panni, the newly appointed Governor of Burhanpur. Farrukh-Siyar wrote secretly to Daud Khan to resist Husain Ali, and he, therefore refused to make submission to the latter. Daud Khan was also emboldened in his defianace by his close relations with the Maratha chiefs, who were encamping near Burhanpur, under Nima Sindhia's leadership The Marathas were awaiting

The Muslim citizens threatered to boycott their prayers on every Friday, if their life and property were not secure in future J. N. Sarkar. op cit,, Vol. IV, p 246-47.

1 Cambridge History of India, Vol IV, p. 242
2 J. N Sarkar, op cit., Vol. III, p. 272.
3 Cambridge History of India, Vol. IV, p. 392.
4 Ibid, p. 395
5 Muntakhabu-l-Lubab, Elliot, Vol. VII, pp. 422-23. According to Burhanul Fatuhat this attack was led by Tarabai the widow of Sambhuji (should be Rajaram), son of Shivji, Elliot, Vol. VIII. pp 30-31.

an opportunity to join the stronger party, Husain Ali Khan had 15,000 horse with him while Daud Khan had three to four thousand horse only. Daud placed Hiraman Bhaksariya, his chief swordsman, in command of his advanced force. A desperate fight followed in the plains of Lal Bagh of Burhanpur in September 1715. Daud Khan fought bravely and vigorously and had nearly won the battle when the day was turned with the fall of Daud Khan whose body was ignominiously dragged round the city at the tail of an elephant.[1] The Nizam, meanwhile had been active. After the murder of Farrukh-Siyar, he revolted and crossed the Narmada in 1720. An envoy came from the fort of Asir, proposing to surrender the fortress, and the Nizam gained its possession with the help of the garrison and imprisoned its aged commander. He next sent Muhammad Ghyas Khan to reduce Burhanpur. Sayyid Alam Khan, the acting Governor, sent Muhammad Anwar Khan to defend Burhanpur but he gave up in despair. Nizam-ul-Mulk later routed Ali Khan, the Governor of Deccan, at the battle of Khandwa[2] After 1723, when the Nizam declared virtual independence the Emperor confirmed him in the government of the Deccan including Khandesh, where the Marathas had already appointed their agents to gather *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi*. The Nizam aspiring for an independent rule in Deccan did not like this. Thus, a contest developed inevitably between him and the Marathas. In 1727, Baji Rao Peshwa made a feint against Burhanpur.[3] In March, 1731, the Nizam had gone to Burhanpur in order to suppress a rebel, Mohan Singh.[4] When the Nizam found it impossible to beat Baji Rao, he concluded a treaty (1732) with him. By this treaty Baji Rao promised not to injure Khandesh while on his march to the north through that province and the Nizam accepted right of the Marathas to the *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi*.[5]

The Marathas

During Nizam's absence from the Deccan Chimaji Appa brother of Peshwa Baji Rao carried his depredations in the environments of Burhanpur.[6] In April, 1739 Baji Rao began to confiscate grants near the city of Burhanpur. Nizam's second son Nasir Jang was then looking after the administration. In 1740 he purchased peace with the Marathas by granting them in *jagir* the whole of Bijagarh and Handia *Sarkars* which included the whole of northern East Nimar. Nasir Jang tried to usurp the authority of Deccan from his aged father. Hearing the news of rebellion, the Nizam left Delhi and reached Burhanpur on 19 Novem-

1. Ibid, pp. 451-54; Cambridge History of India, Vol. IV, p. 334; Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 34.
2. Muntakhabu-I-Lubab, Elliot, Vol. VII, pp 490-96; Cambridge History of India, Vol. IV, pp. 343-399.
3. Cambridge History of India, Vol. IV, p. 380.
4. Ibid, p. 382 Mohan Singh was rebel *Zamindar* in Khandesh the ruler of Barwani. He had furnished Shahu with a body of men and sent him to Maharashtra when the latter was set at liberty by the Mughals, Muntakhabu-I-Lubab, Elliot, Vol. VII. p. 395.
5. Cambridge History of India, Vol. IV, p. 382.
6. Ibid, p 383

ber, 1740, where he halted for two months and subdued his son. Early in 1741 the Nizam crossed the Tapti and marched towards the Deccan.

The Nizam Asaf Jah died at Burhanpur at the age of about 78 years. Salabat Jang, the third son of Nizam, concluded a treaty with the Marathas in 1752 and ceded to the Peshwa Balaji Bajirao the province of Khandesh, except important forts including Asirgarh and Burhanpur,[1] At a later stage some time in A.D. 1757 Nizam Ali captured all power from Salabat. In A.D 1760 the Peshwa wrested, among other territories, the fort of Asir and the city of Burhanpur by a treaty[2] from this new Nizam. The whole of East Nimar thus finally became an appanage of the Peshwa in 1760.

In 1751 the Peshwa appointed Ramchandra Barkoba Bhuskute as *Sar-Mandloi* and *Sar-Kanungo* of the Handia *Sarkar* of *Prant* Nimar of Suba Khandesh. The *Sarkar* was then in a ravaged condition, Brought about by the Bhils and Nahals. The *Watandar* tried to resettle the *Sarkar*, comprising 22 mahals, lying to the south of the Narmada. Under Bhuskute's good administration the District was enjoying peace and prosperity. The dissensions had arisen in the Maratha State on account of the evil designs of Raghunath Rao. In 1774. he fled via Burhanpur to the Narmada, in an attempt to enlist the support of Sindhia and Holkar Haripant Phadke pursued him and stablished his base at Burhanpur. Mahadji Sindhia and Tukoji Holkar persuaded Raghunath Rao to negotiate with the Ministers-Barbhais in the vicinity of Burhanpur. Sakharam Bapu and Nana arrived at Burhanpur, where earnest negotiations were conducted for a time. But before any settlement could be arrived at, Raghunath Rao fled from Burhanpur and Nana and Bapu had to return to Purandar.[4]

Till A.D. 1778 the *Prant* Nimar was administered in the name of Peshwa, who in that year, bestowed in *jagir* the whole *Prant* on the Maratha leaders, Sindhia, Holkar and Pawar[5] with the exception of three small but rich tracts of Kasrawad, Kanapur and Beria. The regions which went to Sindhia included some part of East Nimar. Southern part of the District, which was not in *Prant* Nimar but was a part of *Subah* Khandesh, was also given to Mahadji Sindhia by the Peshwa. Col. Goddard, on his march from Central India to Surat in 1779, had found Khandesh most prosperous. For eighty miles, west of Burhanpur, the country was full of villages, fertile, prosperous and well tilled.[6]

Peshwa Baji Rao II, a man of weak, imbecile and vacillating nature, in alliance with Daulat Rao Sindhia put to death Vithoji Holkar, tying him to the feet of an elephant and thus antagonised Yashwant Rao Holkar. This was the

1 Ibid, p 388
2 Ibid, pp 390-91
3 Nimar Settlement Report, 1870. p. 308.
4 G S Sardesai, New History of the Marathas, Vol. III, pp. 48-50.
5 Nimar Settlement Report. 1870. p. 38.
6 Bombay Gazetteer, Vol. XII, 1781, pp. 289-90.

commencement of the rivalry between the houses of Holkar and Sindhia. This bitter animocity caused a series of internecine wars and political upheavals which brought about devastation of the District. This ultimately led the Maratha State to its rapid ruination for which the trio, Peshwa, Holkar and Sindhia were responsible. The District lost its peace that it had enjoyed during the last forty years.[1] (A.D. 1760-1800)

Yashwant Rao Holkar rose to power in A. D. 1800, and from the following year he began to plunder and ravage the territories of Sindhia lying in Malwa and Nimar. East Nimar too, to a great extent was harrowed with fire and sword and the whole region was reduced to wilderness.[2] Sindhia gathered his forces at Burhanpur but for long remained inactive. He often sent on small detachments to face the Holkar under European[3] officers but they were generally forced to flee. Again in A.D. 1802 Holkar's cavalry ravaged the territory of Sindhia in Nimar and reduced it to a complete waste. A town like Khandwa noted for its wealth was reduced to ashes and the city of Burhanpur purchased its safety at the cost of a heavy ransom.[4]

In A.D. 1803, the Sindhia started reorganisation of his forces and collected a huge army at Burhanpur preparatory to the war which the Maratha confederacy[5] was contemplating against the British. The latter now entered the field by making a treaty with Bajirao II, who embraced the British when defeated and pursued by Yashwant Rao Holkar. Sindhia camped for four months in the *pargana* of Zainabad, which was completely ruined. Crops were destroyed by the horses and bullocks while soldiers practised every kind of oppression During this period people were subjected to constant depredation and organized plunder. The whole East Nimar was in the throes of anarchy, and such a great insecurity and uncertainty of life prevailed that the people in great desperation gave up garden-cultivation and agriculture, for they did not feel assured that they would be able to reap the harvest they had sown. To add to their difficulties visited a terrible famine which resulted in the desolation of the Tapti valley.

In order to nip the Maratha confederacy in the bud, Ahmadnagar, the strong military post of the Sindhia, was captured by the British on 12 August, 1803. The shattered Maratha armies had returned towards Burhanpur in order to defend that important military post together with its covering fort of Asir, from falling into the hands of the British.[6] General Wellesley sent Stevenson, who advanced to Burhanpur and occupied it on 15 October 1803. The keeper of the fort of Asir, too, surrendered it on the 21st October on receiving the cash to clear up the arrears of the garrisons amounting to rupees seven lakhs. Later by the treaty

1. Nimar Settlement Report, 1870. p. 39.
2 Ibid, pp. 39-40.
3. G. S Sardesai, op. cit, p. 367.
4 Nimar Settlement Report, 1870, p 39.
5 Nimar Settlement Report, 1870, p. 40.
6. G. S. Sardesai, op. cit., p. 411.

concluded at Surji Anjangaon, the city of Burhanpur and the fort of Asir together with territories dependent on them were returned to the Sindhia.[1] Major Malcolm, empowered by the Governor-General, concluded with Sindhia another treaty, known as the Treaty of Burhanpur on 27 February, 1804 According to its terms Sindhia entered into a defensive alliance with the British agreeing to keep a subsidiary force of 6,000 infantry near his boundary but within the British territory. But the treaty was soon abrogated by the Sindhia when he attacked the British Resident near Burhanpur. However, the treaty was renewed in 1805.[2]

The Raids of the Pindaris

Although there was peace elsewhere, it was denied to the people of this District. The region continued to be devastated by the Pindaris Majority of these were the demobbed soldiers of the Maratha armies of Sindhia and Holkar, and their bands were organised under the distinctive titles of 'Sindhia Shahi' and 'Holkar Shahi', denoting their former attachment. The main body of them, under the famous Chitu, took up their headquarters in the forest tract lying to the north of the Narmada. They ate up the country like swarm of locusts.[3] The region of Nimar fell the first and foremost victim to their reckless vandalism. Forsyth says that it "never had one day's immunity from plunder and devastation" To add fuel to the fire, the regular followers of Sindhia and Holkar, who had due to poverty of their respective governments not received for long their pay, began to raid and plunder each others' territory. The long catalogue of plunderers further became overcrowded when Bhilala chiefs of Bakhatgarh and Sailani on the Narmada with their followers created new bands of more dreaded plunderers. Hill tribes like Bhils and Korkus too joined these bands. "At this time, if not before, every inhabited village was furnished with a masonry or earthwork fort and many with a complete wall round them besides. All the cultivators crowded into these fortified villages, cultivating only their lands and those of adjoining villages."[4] When the plunderers' force used to be too strong, the *pargana* officers usually purchased immunity by the payment of blackmail. Khandwa *pargana* was thus saved fourteen times in ten years from Holkar's ex-officials.[5] The evil was further aggravated when Yashwant Rao Lad, the killedar of Asirgarh, began his raids into the Rajput zamindaris.[6] Some of the Zamindars like the Rao of Bhanogarh, Rana of Punasa and Thakurs of Jaidi and Ghati Khedi were burnt out of their forts by the Asir troops, though not without hard fighting and considerable slaughter.

Campaign Against the Pindaris

In 1814 Sindhia ceded to the Pindaris five of the *parganas* lying to the north of the Narmada, but this only whetted their appetite and incursions increased in

1 Nimar Settlement Report, 1870, p. 41, G. S. Sardesai op cit, pp 418-19.
2 G S Sardesai, op cit, p 420
3 Nimar District Gazetteer, pp. 37-38.
4 Nimar Settlement Report, 1870, pp 41-42
5 Ibid
6 Nimar District Gazetteer, pp 38-39.

the territories held by the British and their allies.[1] The Maratha chiefs who were smarting under the loss of their power felt a secret satisfaction at the great irritation caused to the British administration by the Pindaris.[2] In 1817 Lord Hastings adopted a comprehensive policy to do away with the Pindari menace. Sindhia, and Holkar entered into engagement with the British binding themselves to help the British forces in their campaign against the Pindaris.

John Malcolm and Adams carried on successful operations against the Pindaris and their bands were annihilated. The Pindaris fleeing in great consternation found refuge in the forest areas of Nimar. Chitu, the most formidable of the Pindari chiefs, who styled himself as Nawab Mustakir Jung was hunted relentlessly until he was driven to the jungle near Asirgarh where he was devoured by a tiger.[3]

Inwardly every Maratha leader was a potential enemy prepared to take advantage of any revese sustained by the British. Thus it so happened that the hunt of the Pindaris became merged in the Third Maratha War and struck the final death-knell of the Maratha power. On the eve of the last Anglo Maratha War (1818) the Peshwa had to cede to the British Government all his territory beyond Maharashtra.[4] The Maratha confederacy came to be finally dissolved.

The Peshwa Surrenders

When the Peshwa Bajirao II again commenced the hostilities and was defeated at several places during flight, he galloped to save his life through Khandesh, crossed the Tapti on 5 May, 1818, and sought shelter in the fort of Asirgarh on 15 May,[5] then in the possession of the Sindhia. The keeper of the fort Yashwant Rao Lad had indeed received secret order from his master to admit the Peshwa and offer him safety. But later on when Bajirao found himself bereft of men and means, he surrendered to John Malcolm at Kheri in Nimar on 18 June, 1818.[6]

Siege of Asirgarh

During the same period Appa Sahib Bhonsla of Nagpur turned to this District for a shelter. Accompanied by Chitu Pindari, he left Mahadeo hills in February, 1819, towards the direction of Khandwa. Appa Sahib further marched towards Asirgarh, where he received shelter.[7] A huge British army pursuing Appa Sahib opened the siege of Asirgarh on 16 February, 1819. This they did in spite of the fact that Sindhia was at that time on friendly terms with the British authorities. It would appear that they were trying to find an excuse for capturing this

1 Nimar Settlement Report, 1870, pp. 45-46.
2 G. S Sardesai. op. cit, p. 481.
3. Ibid, p. 483.
4. Ibid, p. 472.
5. Selections from the Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. IV, p. 187.
6. G. S. Sardesai, op. cit., pp. 495-97; History of Freedom Movement in M. P., p. 10.
7. History of Freedom Movement in M. P., p. 17.

important fortress, since it would give them a commanding position over the Deccan. During the siege, Yeshwant Rao had sent an emissary to the British saying that Appa Sahib was not in the fort.[1] But the British were determined to obtain surrender of the impregnable fort. Ultimately, on 9 April, 1819, the British were successful in capturing the fort. But to their dismay, Appa Sahib was not found there. Thus, Appa Sahib once more eluded his mighty captors.[2] It is said that Appa Sahib, on the 15th February had gone from Dhulkot to Burhanpur where for a short period he stayed in a private house and then went towards Handia in the disguise of a religious mendicant.[3] He crossed the Narmada between Harda and Handia and joined a body of troops belonging to Sindhia, north of the Narmada.[4]

British Occupation

As a result of the last Maratha War of 1818, in capacity of a successor to the Peshwa, the British first obtained the three *parganas* of Kanapur, Kasrawad and Beria with the fort of Asirgarh and a tract of 17 villages attached to it for the maintenance of the garrison, which was known as Tappa Satrabasti.[5] The Satrabasti was first kept under the management of British authorities of Khandesh and afterwards of commandant of Asirgarh. The three British *parganas* were organised into one Nimar Agency, under the Resident, later designated as the Governor-General's Agent for Central India, at Indore.[6]

In 1823 Sindhia's five *parganas*[7] were taken by the British under their management.[8] These were followed by the remaining *parganas*[9] of Sindhia's Nimar. Sindhia now possessed only the town of Burhanpur with Zainabad and Manjrod *parganas* in Nimar. Deducting the management expenses net balance was to be credited to Sindhia. At a later date, the cost of management was fixed at Rs.30,000 per annum.[10] However, after the battle of Maharajpur, the British exacted a treaty in 1844 with the ministers of Sindhia by which whole of Sindhia's Nimar was held by the British as security for the payment of Gwalior contingent and its surplus revenue, too, went towards that contingent and not into Sindhia's treasury.[11]

1. History of Freedom Movement in M. P, p. 18. Sir J Malcolm asked Yaswant Rao Lad to give up Appa Sahib and failing that had declared him a 'traitor' and public enemy. Later he issued a proclamation, asking Yaswant Rao to surrender the fort by 5 March, failing which Asirgarh was to be invested. Selections from the Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. IV, pp. 316-20.
2. G S. Sardesai, op cit., p. 477. Appa Sahib, in desperation, was inclined to surrender before Malcolm, but was dissuaded by Yaswant Rao from doing so. —Selections From the Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. IV, pp. 319-20.
3. History of Freedom Movement in M. P., p. 18.
4. Selections from Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. IV, pp. 312-14.
5. Report on the District of Nimar, 1864, pp. 11-12.
6. Nimar Settlement Report, 1870, p. 45
7. Dhurgaon, Barwai, Sailani, Punasa and Khandwa.
8. Report on the Province of Nimar, 1856, p. 19.
9. Asir, Bhamgarh, Mundi, Bilora, Atod, Piplod,
10. Nimar Settlement Report, 1870 p. 46.
11. Ibid, p. 46.

The first twenty year period (1825-45) of the British management could better be termed a period of misgovernment and over-taxation. The people groaned under the heals of an alien and unsympathetic administration and were reduced to abject proverty. Capt. P.T. French, who assumed charge of Political Assistant in Nimar in 1845, had the honesty to admit that the District was monstrously over-taxed and neglected in all respects. He writes, "Those we found poor have remained so, and many of those that were otherwise have become poor; no one here seems to have prospered under our rule. Nimar had conferred on her few, if any, of the measures of amelioration introduced elsewhere, while she felt the inevitable evils of a foreign rule. ...year after year passed away—Nimar having the dread of evil without the prospect of good before her. In a word, we reaped without sowing and in exacting the rights of property, we forgot its duties..... "[1]

Though the Pindaris were exterminated as a body in 1819, one of their leaders, named Sheikh Dulla, continued for the next eight years an Ishmaelitish existence in Nimar and the neighbouring districts. His name was remembered by the people as well as Chitu's in Major Forsyth's time (1870) and various stories were related of him. He was popularly supposed never to have dismounted from his black mare even at night and to have had the power of changing himself and mare into a *sambhar* or *nilgai* when necessary. On one occasion, with only four *sowars*, he forced one of the gates of Burhanpur and plundered a portion of the city. A local saying about him which was known in the first decade of this Century was.

Niche zamin upar Allah
bich men phire Sheikh Dullah

(God is above and the earth beneath, and Sheikh Dulla wanders at his will between). In 1824 he had collected a force of 600 men in the Piplod forests with the object of raising a movement in favour of Appa Sahib. Troops under Major Sayor and Lt. Dermit took the field against him and though he evaded any engagement his force melted away. He disappeared for a time in the Nasik forests, but returned to the Tapti jungles in 1827 with a few followers, and plundered at intervals with much impunity, until in 1828 he was killed in Berar by the treachery of a follower The Bhils of the Asir hills also gave a great deal of trouble to the British, until their principal chiefs or Naiks were captured, and employment was found for many of them in the Khandesh Bhil Corps.[2]

The Great Uprising

The District of East Nimar did not remain unaffected by the waves of the Great Uprising, which swept the Country in 1857. The first signs of the ripples

1 Report on the Province of Nimar, 1856, pp. 60-62.

2. This Corps was raised in A. D. 1819. It consisted of 100 sowars, 50 matchlockmen, and 250 bowmen, with officers in proportion. Though called a Bhil Corps, many other castes were admitted to it; but it was entirely recruited at first from the plunderers thrown out of employment by the restoration of order in the country, to which result it greatly contributed-Nimar Settlement Report, 1870, p. 48.

having travelled to the District were soon visible. Captain Keatinge, the officer incharge of the District at that time, says that the year opened in Nimar by a general distribution of small cakes, which were passed on from village to village. The cakes were being sent from the direction of Indore. Indore City then being in the grip of cholera of severe nature, the distribution of cakes was regarded by the people of East Nimar as a customary habit of passing on certain holy and unholy things. There was quiet in the District till news arrived of the uprising of the 1st Hyderabad Cavalry at Aurangabad, accompained by a report that it was on its way to the city of Burhanpur enroute to the north.[1]

On the 21st June Captain Keatinge marched from Mandleshwar with about 30 mounted policemen, with orders to raise what force he could, to oppose the passage of the 1st Hyderabad Cavalry and the Gwalior Contingent troops at Asir and Burhanpur, if they attempted to pass through the District to the north. Keatinge took up position at Katighat Pass and after great exertion succeeded in collecting a force of 400 men. At the same time an old gun which was left in the fort of Khandwa was brought up and mounted on cart wheels. The regular police from all the neighbouring police stations was called to the Pass, and the *Thanedars* were instructed to collect villagers to assist in the defensive measures. Towards the end of June, news was current that the Gwalior Contingent troops at Asir were in contact with Sindhia's troops at Burhanpur and were waiting for an opportinity to raise the banner of revolt. In the beginning of July frightened European residents of Mandleshwar were sent to the fort of Punasa. The treasury was also removed to the fort. This was done as a precuationary measure when the news of the Uprising at Mhow and massacre at Indore was received [2]

On the 6th July, a part of Sindhia's Contingent, numbering 105 men and belonging to the garrison of Asirgarh, who were for some time on duty at Burhanpur, were recalled to Asir on the 4th But they returned to Burhanpur in a state of rebellion and threatened the town. The gates of the town were immediately closed, so that the rebels could not find entry On receiving the news, Captain Birch, Assistant Superintendent of Police at Burhanpur, at once marched with a small force of Bhils The rebels surrendered without a fight on a mistaken notion that Birch was commanding a large force and that the British had guns in the town, ready to open on them should they refuse to lay down their arms. Two leaders of the rebels were put under arrest [3] The Uprising of the men of the Gwalior Contingent at Asirgarh was also quickly subdued[4] by a datachment of Bombay Infantry and Hyderabad Cavalry that arrived at Asirgarh. Soon, all the Europeans migrated there from Punasa. Later, a column of Bombay troops from Aurangabad marched to the District and all apprehensions of a local outbreak ceased All through this period East Nimar was protected by a detachment

1 Quoted in Nimar Settlement Report, 1870, pp 49-51.

2 Ibid.

3. A. H. A. Simcox, A Memoir of the Khandesh Bhil Corps. pp. 205-7.

4 Ibid, p. 208

of the Malwa Bhil Corps, and by the Nimar Police Corps and they continued to be loyal to their British masters.[1]

A narrative of the events that occurred in connection with the Great Uprising would remain incomplete without an account of incidents that are associated with the activities of Tatya Tope, one of the foremost leaders of the Uprising, in East Nimar. In October, 1858, Tatya Tope had crossed the Narmada, in an attempt to reach the Deccan. In the following month, after crossing the Satpura ranges, he suddenly appeared in the District by the route of the Tapti valley. On reaching Khandwa, he found his progress impeded in all directions, Sir Hugh Rose preventing his advance into Khandesh, and General Roberts cutting him from Gujarat. A small force was also moving towards him from Berar, in order to prevent his entry into that region. It would appear from an eye-witness account, left by a compatriot, that the condition of Tatya's army was most distressing. They had no ammunition, provision or money. If accounts are to be believed, it became evident to Tatya Tope that he was no longer in a position to challenge the might of the British and that the cause was lost. He, therefore, permitted those of his followers who still could seek shelter anywhere, to part company with him. But his selected band of compatriots refused to leave their leader when he needed their assistance most. Before he left Nimar, Tatya is said to have struck for Asirgarh, but finding the region-well-guarded, he marched out of the District burning the police stations and government buildings at Khandwa, Piplod and a number of other places, and escaped again to Central India by way of Khargone.[2]

Though the Great Uprising was ruthlessly suppressed, the vexatious question of law and order, intermittent raids of the dacoits and above all the deep-seated fear of another uprising necessitated the establishment of military centre at Asirgarh. About 4 companies of the British and the Indian forces continued to be posted at Asirgarh for many years to come.[3]

By the Treaty of 12 December, 1860, the ten *parganas* of Sindhia's Nimar, which had been under the management of the British since 1824-25, were finally transferred to the latter in full sovereignty. By the same Treaty, the Burhanpur city, with the *parganas* of Zainabad and Manjrod in the Tapti Valley, were also acquired by the British on the same footing from the Sindhia. There had been some other minor transfers and mutual exchanges of territories between the British, Sindhia and Holkar during the succeeding years. In May, 1864 the District was transferred to the Central Provinces and the headquarters of the District was immediately transferred from Mandleshwar to Khandwa.

1. Nimar Settlement Report, 1870, p. 52.
2. S. N Sen, Eighteen Fifty Seven, pp. 372 and 400, History of Freedom Movement in M. P. p. 88; Nimar Settlement Report, 1870, p. 53.
3 C. P. Administration Report, 1869-70, p 68

Tantiya Bhil

The period from 1878 to 1889 was marked by the career of the notorious decoit Tantiya Bhil. He first took to committing petty thefts and subsequently kindnapped a person and obtained a ransom of Rs. 100 for him. He was imprisoned in 1878, but soon escaped and began his career as a leader of dacoits, which lasted for over a decade and made his name known throughout India. In 1880, about 200 of his followers were captured and sentenced. Tantiya, whose story resembles that of Robin Hood, carried on raids into the adjoining areas. Government anounced a reward of Rs. 5,000 on his head. The official version describes him as a habitual and notorious leader of dacoits and also a friend of the poor. He had great influence over the Korkus and other people of backward classes who called him Tantiya *Mama*, as he distributed his proceed among the poor very liberally. At long last, he was captured by ambush and carried to Jabalpur, where he was tried and hanged in December, 1889. Tantiya, curiously enough, became so popular that crowds of people flocked at every station on the journey from Khandwa to Jabalpur to see him, and the Nagpur Bar had submitted an appeal on his behalf to the Chief Commissioner.

Growth of Freedom Movement

To come back to the genesis and growfth o Freedom Movement. In the years that followed the Great Uprising, the British Administrators bestrode the land with the arrogance and brutality of mediaeval conquerors. During the last decade of the 19th Century, police atrocities in the District greatly increased. Constables used to beat and arrest persons at will and re-arrest them even after their acquittal by court. One such case of high-handedness was reported in the columns of the *Subdoh Sindhu*, a Marathi Weekly of Khandwa.[1] Another instance of the reign of police terror in the District was evident in the letter published in the *Subodh Sindhu*, in the February issue on the same year. The writer of the letter, Raghunath Bhide, the owner and Editor of the Marathi weekly, *Arya Vaibhav* of Burhanpur, had beseeched the Editor of *Subodh Sindhu* not to expose police atrocities at Burhanpur otherwise the writer would lose his life.

A few groups are known to have been in existence at that time which took up the challenge, and did pioneering work for creating national awakening. As long back as 1883, public spirited men of Khandwa organised a Sarvajanika Sabha with a view to ventilating grievances of the people. The visit of Swami Dayanand Saraswati led to the organisation of a branch of Arya Samaj at Khandwa Later, Swami Vivekanand visited Khandwa twice.[2] It is not difficult to comprehend that the visits of these two great leaders must have led to the revival of faith and self-confidence among the local populace.

The first real break-through in the dormant political conditions of East Nimar was, however, made in the year 1907, when soon after the Calcutta Session

1 *Subodh Sindhu*, dated 26 October, 1892

2. Life of Swami Vivekananda, Vol. I, pp 277-78 and 651.

of the Congress, two prominent leaders of the extremist group of the party G. S. Khaparde of Amravati and Munje of Nagpur—paid a visit to Khandwa and Burhanpur, and addressed public meetings.[1] These meetings set the pace for the growth of political consciousness in the District. That the young and educated sections of the District were bestirring themselves into political activity became evident when at the 4th Provincial Political Conference that met at Nagpur, in 1915, Kaluram Gangrade of East Nimar found a place in the newly constituted Executive Committee of the C. P. and Berar Provincial Association, while four others were accepted as permanent members.[2]

In the following years two other organisations came into being. The first was the Swarjya Sangh (Home Rule League), established in 1917, which had a membership of 81 in the District.[3] Its object was attainment of *Swaraj* or Home Rule as expounded by Annie Beasant. The other was the Sewa Samiti, established in 1917, which professed to be a social service organisation but was, in fact, a recruiting ground for political workers.

In the intervening years, the pace of political agitations slowed down on account of the assurances on the part of the British to give India a fair deal as soon as the War was over. But the various repressive Acts like the Defence of India Act, the Press Act, the Criminal Procedure Amendment Act, and ultimately, the introduction of the notorious Rowlatt Bill, which aimed at stifling the voice of the people, caused a great disappointment and deep resentment The realisation dawned upon the people that the only path of salvation lay in organising themselves in defence of their liberty and for winning their rights. It was against this background that the movement for Home Rule gained momentum and its branches were organised everywhere. The Calcutta Session of the Congress, in 1917, was attended by a number of young nationalist workers of East Nimar, namely, Haridas Chatterjee, Makhanlal Chaturvedi, Thakur Laxmansingh Chauhan and Abdul Qadir Siddiqui. Soon after the Calcutta Session Lokmanya Tilak made a whirl-wind tour of the Central Provinces, during the course of which he paid a visit to Khandwa and Burhanpur on 6 February, 1918, and addressed huge public meetings.[4] The enthusiasm roused by Tilak's visit manifested itself in the establishment of a branch of the Congress, on 6 February, 1918, in East Nimar District, under the presidentship of Haridas Chatterjee.

Soon after, the Provincial Political Conference met at Khandwa on 19 April, 1919, six days after the Jallianwala Bagh massacre. The mood of the people could well be imagined in those circumstances. Speaker after speaker strongly condemned the outrage.[5] It was followed, in March, 1920, with the convening of a District Political Conference.[6] These conferences gave an undoubted impetus

1. History of Freedom Movement in M. P., p. 214.
2. Prayagdutta Shukla, *Kranti Ke Charan*, pp. 129-30.
3. Ibid, p. 136.
4. Prayagdutta Shukla, op. cit., p. 155; History of Freedom Movement in M. P., p. 299.
5. History of Freedom Movement in M. P., p. 288.
6. Prayagdutta Shukla, op cit., p. 170.

to the growth of political awakening, bringing new sections under the influence of the Congress. Thus, when Tilak died the students of Khandwa High School mourned the loss by observing *hartal*, with the rest of the Country. Again, when Prince of wales visited India in 1921, students of Khandwa were in the forefront, protesting against the visit.[1] They took out a huge procession, which was mercilessly caned by the police. Yet another episode, which galvanised the people of the East Nimar into action, was the Government's decision to open slaughter house at Ratauna in Sagar district. The decision touched off countrywide agitation Gau-Rakshan Sabhas sprang up at many places. One such Sabha was formed at Burhanpur, which carried on a ceaseless campaign till ultimately Government was forced to beat a retreat.

Following the Nagpur Session of the Congress, Hindi Central Provinces (later called Mahakoshal) Provincial Congress Committee, was formed. In the first session of this Committee, which met at Sagar in November, 1921, Abdul Qadir Siddiqui of Burhanpur was elected to the post of Vice-Presidentship.[2] He was also elected to the All India Congress Committee.

Non Co-operation

In the era of Non-Co-operation Movement, East Nimar did not fail to make its contribution. The British goods were boycotted, two lawyers gave up their practice, use of *Swadeshi* was propagated, bonfire of foreign clothes was lit at public places[3] and picketing was resorted to at liquor shops. Boycott of liquor shops was so successful in the District that the contractors refused to bid during auction of intoxicants. The workers of the District were paid glowing tributes on their success on this issue at the Provincial Political Conference, held at Jabalpur.[4] About one thousand Khadi-clad volunteers took out a procession, at Khandwa, carrying portrait of Tilak. When the students of Khandwa started active participation in the Non-Co-operation Movement, the authorities closed down the schools.[5] Mahatma Gandhi's visit to Khandwa, in 1921, resulted in further strengthening the cause of the National Movement. A purse of Rs. 25,000 was presented to the Mahatma on behalf of the people of East Nimar. He was also given a civic reception by the local Municipal Committee.[6] Khilafat Swayamsevak Dal was organised at Burhanpur at this time, which helped the cause of the Movement with the aid of its volunteer corps.

In these years, the public life of Khandwa brought forth a leader of great eminence in the person of Makhanlal Chaturvedi. He was the first political worker in the Mahakoshal region to be tried and sentenced to eight months rigorous imprisonment in July, 1921, for the 'crime' of patriotism.

1. *Swarajya*, Hindi Weekly of Khandwa, 15 August, 1959
2. History of Freedom Movement in M. P, p. 309.
3. *Karmavir*, Hindi Weekly, 6 August, 1920
4. Tripuri Congress Guide, p. 30.
5. *Karmavir*, 12 March, 1921
6. Ibid, 4 June, 1921.

The Flag *Satyagraha*, launched in 1923, soon assumed an All-India character. Batches of volunteers poured in at Nagpur from all over India, specially from all the districts of the Central Provinces and Berar. Eminent leaders of the Congress converged at Nagpur to guide and watch the progress of the Flag *Satyagraha*. The public life of East Nimar, at this period, received a rare honour in as much as its leader, Makhanlal Chaturvedi, was specially asked to lead a batch of *Satyagrahis*, which among others, included Vallabh Bhai Patel and Rajendra Prasad. A press correspondent, reporting this spectacle gave the following account of it.

> "It was a thrilling sight to see the big procession marching calmly in well arranged ranks behind their Captain Pandit Makhanlal Chaturvedi, who was specially sent to-day for *Satyagraha* at the head of the procession to meet any emergencies that might arise......"

And that day became a day of glory, for the *Satyagraha* triumphed. At a public meeting held under the presidentship of Chaturvedi to celebrate victory, Sardar Patel announced withdrawal of the *Satyagraha*.[1]

The years that followed were comparatively free from political agitations. Elections to the second Legislative Council of the Province were held in 1924. The seat of the Non-Muhammadan Rural Constituency of Nimar District was won by the Swarajya Party, a Group formed within the Congress. A year later, the Provincial Students Conference, convened at Khandwa, went a long way to attract ever-increasing number of students to the Congress fold. Two Congress front physical culture societies, Hanuman Vyayamshalas were organised at Burhanpur and Khandwa in 1926 and 1931, respectively. Although they professed to be looking after physical welfare of the yough, they had, in fact, strong political leanings and helped in furthering the cause of freedom struggle.

Civil Disobedience Movement

When the storm-cloud burst ever the Country in the nature of the mass Civil-Disobedience Movement in 1930, there was no dearth of persons in the District, who were ready to sacrifice everything for the sake of the Motherland. The Movement followed more or less the same course in the District as was the case with other places throughout the length and breadth of the country. The only difference was that instead of resorting to the breach of salt laws, for which no natural facilities were available in the Central Provinces, Forest *Satyagraha* and reading of proscribed literature were adopted as the methods of *Satyagraha* in this Province. Forest *Satyagraha* Committee of Khandwa launched *Satyagraha*. A number of volunteers courted arrest. Those volunteers who were still out, organised a *Satyagraha* camp at Dongargaon. But the police was in no mood to spareany body. Armed police reached there from Burhanpur and later, arrested

1. History of Freedom Movement in M. P., pp. 322-29; Report on the *Jhanda Satyagraha*, pp. 123-28.

all of them.[1] The main centres of Movement in the District of East Nimar were Khandwa, Burhanpur, Rustampur, Mundi, Pandhana, Harsud and Dongargaon. Liquor shops, distilleries and foreign cloth shops were picketed, *hartals* were observed and processions taken out. Merchants, who had stock of foreign cloth, invited the Congress workers in order to put their seal on it and pleadged not to sell it.[2] Students also threw themselves whole-heartedly in the Movement. They removed the Union Jack from the High School Building and hoisted the Tricolour instead.[3] In this connection Raichand Bhai Nagda was fined and imprisoned. Security was demanded from *Karmavir*, which had shifted its publication from Jabalpur to Khandwa in 1925, and the Weekly ceased publication. Pt. Makhanlal Chaturvedi, Editor of the Weekly, was soon after arrested and sentenced to two years[4] imprisonment. Editor of *Swarajya*, S. M. Agarkar was also arrested and imprisoned.[5] A noteworthy feature of the Movement during this period was the organisation of the youth into the youth leagues. One such Nav Jawan Sabha or Tarun Sangh was established at Khandwa in 1931. The chief task of this organisation was, of course, to lend a helping hand to the Congress in the freedom struggle.

Although conclusion of the Gandhi Irwin Pact brought the Civil Disobedience Movement to a close, the arrest of Mahatma Gandhi and Sardar Patel set off the spark again. The Government took to Draconian laws to curb the spirit of the people. The unlawful Association Ordinance of 1932 was applied in the District first, against the District Congress Committee, and later, against Tarun Sangh, both of which were declared unlawful. It deserves mention that the responsibility of carrying forward the Movement, after the ban was imposed on the Congress, fell on the shoulders of Tarun Sangh and that it aquitted itselves creditably in the appointed task. To intensify the campaign of boycott of foreign goods, a branch of the *Swadeshi* Pracharak Sangh was established at Khandwa. The ostensible object of the Sangh was to promote the use of *Swadeshi* articles, in practice, however, the Sangh took an active part in all forms of the Congress agitation. The total number of convictions in East Nimar, in connection with the Civil Disobedience Movement, for the period ending 18 March, 1933 was 39, including 2 women.[6]

With the cessation of agitational phase of activities, the Congress took to constructive channels. A branch of the Harijan Sewak Sangh was established at Khandwa, under the aegis of the Congress, in 1932.[7] This was followed with the establishment of a branch at Burhanpur.

Another noteworthy feature that came to the fore in the post-Civil Disobedience Movement was the growth of the leftist forces within the Congress.

1. *Swarajya* 15 August, 1959
2. Ibid.
3. Ibid.
4. A Compilation of Important Political Trials in C. P. and Berar, 1935, p. 6.
5. Ibid, p. 28.
6. Note on the Second Civil Disobedience Movement in C. P. and Berar, ending 18 March, 1933.
7. List of Political and Quasi Political Organisations in C P. and Berar, July 1939.

A section of young Congressmen desired a more militant programme and a more vigorous action for the party. This led to the formation of a Socialist Group within the Congress fold. The Group visualised a prominent role for the working class in the freedom struggle, and it inevitably led to their organisation into the labour unions. Consequently, two labour unions the Socialist Labour Union, which though established in 1931 was reactivised in 1934, and the Tapti Mill Workers Union came into being at Burhanpur in 1935. Later, Bidi Workers Union and G.I.P. Railway Men's Union were also formed.[1]

On removal of the ban from the All India Hindustan Sewa Dal, its branch was opened at Khandwa, in 1937. The volunteers of this Dal, later styled as the Congress Sainik Dal, were given training in military drill and *lathi* exercise and appeared on ceremonial occasions. During the same year, the Student's League was organised at Burhanpur.

After the historic Poona-Pact, Gandhiji created a new organisation, named Harijan Sewak Sangh. Gandhiji himself toured the country for collecting Harijan Sewak Fund. In December, 1933 Gandhiji visited Khandwa and Burhanpur.[2] When Gandhiji alighted at the railway station, he was literally mobbed It was with great difficulty that he could reach the place where he was to put up. At Khandwa, he opened Khadi Bhandar and addressed a huge public meeting. He also addressed a big gathering at Burhanpur.

Individual Civil Disobedience Movement, launched in October, 1940, as a protest against the war policy of the Government, found echoes in the hearts of the people of this District as well. The District Congress Committee was transformed into *Satyagraha* Committee. About 25 persons were approved by Gandhiji for offering *Satyagraha* in the District [3] The first approved *Satyagrahi* to court arrest was Bhagwantrao Annabhau Mandloi. Thereafter, people courted arrests at Khandwa, Burhanpur, Harsud and Jaswadi, one after another, till the Movement was withdrawn in December, 1941.

Quit India Movement

A few months of pause ensued during which preparations were made for the impending struggle for fredom. And finally, inevitably and inexorably, the country was locked in a life and death struggle for the overthrow of the British dominance. The District Political Conference which was held at Harsud[4] sometime before August, 1942 had alerted the people for the impending struggle. The mass upsurge of 1942 stirred the District. with the rest of the Country, as never before. Some of the leaders from the District, who returned from Bombay after attending the Session of the All India Congress Committee were arrested immediately. By the end of August, all prominent Congress workers of East Nimar were put behind

1 Ibid
2. List of Political and Quasi Political Organisations in C. P. and Berar, July 1939.
3. *Swarajya*, 15 August, 1959.
4. Ibid.

the bars. All Congress Committees were declared unlawful and their offices were seized. Prominent printing presses and a few houses were also searched by the police.[1] Municipal schools at Burhanpur remained closed. Students of Robertson High School, Burhanpur hoisted Tri-colour on the school building on the 15th August. But it was removed by the police.[2] For days together, the students organised processions. They observed *hartal* till their demands of re-hoisting the flag and pasting photographs of national leaders on walls of the school building were not met.

The events leading to the attainment of the Independence are of an All-India character and too well known to recount them here. The goal of *purna swarajya*, which the country had set before itself for long, was finally achieved on 15 August, 1947.

1 Case file containing Report of Tahsildars, S. D. Os, D. S. P. and others preserved in the Record Room Collectorate.

2 Ibid.

CHAPTER III

PEOPLE

The District as now comprise, extends over an area of 4,132 sq. miles[1] (10,702 sq. kms.) with a population of 6.58 lakh persons (3,53,378 males and 3,31,772 females), as per 1961 Census, i.e., an increase of about 30.88 per cent over 1951 population. As a result of the Provinces and States (Absorption of Enclaves) Order, 1950, 39 villages were transferred from Nimar District to West Nimar District in the erstwhile Madhya Bharat State. The area of the District was thus reduced by 95 sq. miles, involving a population of 16,000 persons. The urban population (1,54,375), which resided in 3 towns,[2] bears a ratio of 1: 3.4 with the rural, in contrast with 1: 0.7 in Indore District. The rest of the population lived in 1,082 villages as per Census of 1961. Of the three tahsils, viz., Khandwa, Harsud and Burhanpur, Khandwa is the most populated while Harsud is the least. Though the density[3] of the District which was 124 persons per sq. mile in 1951 increased to 166 in 1961, yet it was much below the average density of the State, viz , 192 persons per sq. mile.

The tahsil-wise break-up of population is shown in the following Table.—

Tahsil	Area in		Population		Total	Density per sq. miles
	Sq. miles	Sq. kms.	Males	Females		
Khandwa	1,176.85	3,048 1	1,61,253	1,49,580	3,10,833	264
Burhanpur	564.80	1,462 8	1,22,324	1,15,920	2,38,244	422
Harsud	720.10	1,865.0	69,801	66,272	1,36,073	189
District Total	4,125.84	10,686.0	3,53,378	3,31,772	6,85,150	166

Note:—State Survey area figures for the District include the forest area of 1,664.1 sq. miles (4,310.1 sq. kms.)

It is evident from the above Table that in terms of area Burhanpur is the smallest Tahsil with largest density, while Harsud, the second largest, has the lowest density. In terms of area and population both, Khandwa was the largest Tahsil. Industrial and commercial growth of Burhanpur and Nepanagar has

1. According to Surveyor-General of India.
2. A 'town' in the 1961 Census had to be either :—
   (i) a municipality, cantonment or corporation;
   (ii) a habitation with a population of atleast 5,000, atleast three-fourths of the adult male population being engaged in non-agricultural occupations.
3. According to State Survey area figures.

resulted in an increase in the population of that area. Harsud Tahsil has been mainly agricultural and had no urban centres in 1961.

Proporation of Sexes

Of the 685,150 persons, the males constituted about 51.5 per cent and females 48.5 per cent in 1961. This yielded a sex-ratio of 939 (females per 1,000 males) against the sex ratio of 953 for the whole State. Nimar, being a border District is considerably exposed to immigration, which to some extent results in depressing the sex-ratio.

The distribution of male and female population over the last 60 years can be seen from the following Table.—

Census year	Population			Females per 1,000 males.
	Persons	Males	Females	
1901	3,17,173	1,62,809	1,54.364	948
1911	3,78,571	1,94,355	1,84,216	948
1921	3,83,954	1,98,984	1,84,970	930
1931	4,52,431	2,34,542	2,17,889	929
1941	4,97,276	2,55,569	2,41,707	946
1951	5,23,496	2,68,762	2,54,734	948
1961	6,85,150	3,53,378	3,31,772	939

Note —Since there is no change in the boundaries of the District during 1951-61, the 1961 figures have been juxtaposed.

During these 60 years the males increased by 117.0 per cent and females by 114.9 per cent. After maintaining precisely the same sex-ratio in the initial decades, the proportion declined considerably in the decades 1921 and 1931, recording 930 and 929 females per 1,000 males, respectively. As a result of the plague in an epidmic form in 1911-12 and again in 1916 and 1917 there was an excess of 10,000 deaths over births. Further devastation was caused by the influenza epidemic in 1918 and 1919, and yet surprisingly enough the District population increased by 5,383 persons, mainly males. However, the female population practically remained stationary. The more potent factor nullifying the natural causes was the unprecedentedly large (17,000 or 33 per cent more than in 1911) immigration from Khandesh, owing to the scarcity of water there. Apart from this fact the sexually selective mortality, although reasons are unknown, disturbs the sex-ratio violently. The general population increased by 17.8 per cent during the following decade (1921-31), but the porportion of sexes was not disturbed much. The females were 929 per 1,000 males in 1931, the lowest in the Province. Both the factors, viz., the large incidence of immigrant population, and males heavily in excess among them in towns as well as in villages, operated during this decade too. In 1951, sex-ratio showed some improvement, but again the earlier trend towards a decline re-asserted itself in 1961 when 939 females per 1,000 males were recorded.

During all these decades the sex-ratio in rural areas has always been higher than in the urban areas of the District. In 1901, there were 950 females per 1,000 males in rural area as against 939 in the urban area. In 1961, the sex-ratio was 948 in rural against 906 in urban area. The persistent trends of low urban sex-ratio may be attributed to the movement of labour force in search of employment in towns, their families following them after considerable time.

Among the tahsils, Khandwa had the largest population with lowest sex-ratio (928), while Harsud with lowest population had the highest sex-ratio, viz., 949 females per 1,000 males. Burhanpur, however, had a ratio of 948.

Growth of Population

The earliest known population figures of the District, having then an area of about 3,250 sq. miles, is of the year 1831, when for the first time, the residents of the tract were carefully and accurately registered to the tune of 66,168 persons by the village authorities.[1] But the enumeration was not done simultaneously. It can conveniently and usefully be compared with similar enumeration effected by the same agency in 1866-67 during the course of settlement, and not with the regular census figures. The population was found to have increased from 66,168 to 1,01,017 persons, the increase being about 52 per cent[2] over 1831 figures. During this period the tract witnessed the extension of the area under cultivation,[3] an introduction of railway and consequent immigration. Probably, these factors were responsible for an enormous increase in population.

Since 1866, the area of the District had undergone considerable changes. In 1868 the *taluks* of Kasrawad, Dhurgaon and Barwani were ceded to Indore. The first decennial census was conducted in 1872 and was followed by two other during, the last Century, one in 1881 and the other in 1891. According to 1911 Census, the adjusted population to the area figures of 1911 was 2.25 lakhs in 1872, 2.54 lakhs and 2.86 lakhs in 1881 and 1891, respectively. The percentage increase, during the decades ending 1881 and 1891, amounted to 13 per cent in each decade. The net variation during the period amounted to 27.46 per cent. The increase was mainly due to the immigration; the natural growth being very small owing to severe epidemics of cholera in 1872 and 1878. The balance of immigrants recorded in 1881, and 1891 censuses was about 40 thousand and 33 thoudand, respectively. Most of the immigration was of permanent nature consisting of traders, cultivators, farm labourers, etc. The principal sources of immigration had been Bombay, Rajputana, Central India, Oudh and Berar from beyond the State, and Hoshangabad from within the State. The annual average birth-rate during the decade ending 1891 was 42 per mille or slightly higher than the Provincial figure. However, the death-rate was 36 per mille. Though the decade ending 1900, had been remarked as the darkest period in the census history,

1. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p 242.
2. Ibid, p. 242
3. Ibid, p. 243

owing to the great famine of 1900, which resulted in more deaths (46 per mille) than births (41 per mille), it is surprising to note that the District population increased to 3.27 lakhs in 1901 from 2.86 lakhs in 1891. The increase in the population amounted to 14.3 per cent, though in the adjoining West Nimar District there was an actual decline of about 14.05 per cent over this period. The increase may be attributed to the large influx of persons that took place during the decade. The immigration following the 1900 famine resulted in a net increase of 5,000 persons from Berar, 13,000 from Central India, and 6,000 from Bombay. Besides, Harsud Tahsil was also formed in 1896, out of the 192 villages transferred from Hoshangabad and 65 from Khandwa Tahsil of Nimar.[1]

The growth of population of the District from 1901 to 1961 is shown in the following Table.—

District/Tahsil	Census Years						
	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961
Khandwa	N.A.	1,92,848	1,92,526	2,18,464	2,34,255	2,44,311	3,10,833
Burhanpur	N.A.	1,07,723	1,24,232	1,45,241	1,64,284	1,76,410	2,38,244
Harsud	N.A.	78,000	67,196	87,726	98,737	1,02,775	1,36,073
District Total	3,17,173	3,78,571	3,83,954	4,52,431	4,97,276	5,23,496	6,85,150

The Table given above shows that from 1901 to 1961 the population of East Nimar increased by about 116.02 per cent or has more than doubled itself. The annual growth rate was 1.93 per cent in comparison with 3.29 per cent in the adjoining District of West Nimar during this period. For Madhya Pradesh as a whole, the annual percentage growth rate for the period has been, however, 1.53 per cent. During these 50 years the population of Khandwa Tahsil increased by 61 2 per cent, Harsud by 74.5 per cent and Burhanpur by about 122.2 per cent over 1911 population figures.

The net variation in the District population, since 1901, is given below.—

Census years	Population	Absolute and percentage increase in intervals of					
		10 years	20 years	30 years	40 years	50 years	60 years
1901	3,17,173	61,398	66,781	1,35,258	1,80,103	2,06,323	3,67,977
		(19 36)	(21.06)	42.64)	(56 78)	(65.05)	(116.02)
1911	3,78,571	5,383	73,860	1,18,705	1,44,925	3,06,579	—
		(1.42)	(19 51)	(31.35)	(38 28)	(80.98)	
1921	3,83,954	68,477	1,13,322	1,39,542	3,01,196	—	—
		(17.83)	(29 51)	(36.34)	(78 45)	—	—
1931	4,52,431	44,845	71,065	2,32,719	—	—	—
		(9 9')	(15.71)	(51.44)	—	—	—
1941	4,97,276	26,220	1,87,874	—	—	—	—
		(5.27)	(37.78)				
1951	5,23,496	1,61,654	—	—	—	—	—
		(30.88)					
1961	6,85,150	—	—	—	—	—	—

[1] Ibid, 1911-14, p 8

The decade following the great famine of 1900 was a period of recovery, resulting into an increase of 19.36 per cent in the population. The gradual increase in the population of the District was interrupted in the unhealthy decade 1901-11, when the District population increased by only 1.42 per cent. Largest increase was, however, during the last decade ending 1961. The regular visitation of plague, which was more severe in the urban areas, adversely affected the growth of the District population. Yet the favourable factors, such as, colonization of a considerable area of the Government forest land which was excised for *ryotwari* settlement, the extension of cotton cultivation, and the growing trade and industry in the region, gave an impetus for immigration to a great extent. During the decade, the immigrants (1,01,382) exceeded the emigrants (20,155) by about 81 thousand persons. Bombay and Central India were again the chief contributors to the immigration; while the former also absorbed fair number of emigrants from this District.

The decade of 1911-21 recorded an increase of 5,383 or 1.42 per cent in 1921 against 19.36 per cent in 1911. The population in 1921 moved to 3.84 lakhs (1.99 lakhs males and 1.85 lakhs females), about 21.06 per cent higher than that in 1901. Visitation of plague; failure of crops and to crown them all, the devastating influenza epidemic of 1918-19, increased the death rate to 51 against the birth rate of 49.[1] The recorded deaths exceeded the births by nearly 10,000. It was surprising that the population rose by 1.42 per cent, an exception among the Districts of Narmada Division. Again the recuperation was on account of heavy immigration from Khandesh owing to water scarcity, which sent out about 17,000 persons out of the total of about 90 thousand in the District. Emigration was of the order of 35,252 persons only. During the decade the population of Khandwa and Harsud Tahsils declined by 0.16 and 13.85 per cent; respectively. Population of Burhanpur Tahsil, however, increased by about 15.33 per cent.

The decade 1921-31 showed an increase of about 68,000 persons or 17.83 per-cent over the last decade. The mean decennial birth and death-rates (registered) were 47.2 and 36.00, respectively. The birth-rate also reflected the "extra-ordinary fertility of Korkus, whole villages of whom were almost wiped out in influenza of 1918,"[2] during the last decade. In 1931 they increased from 41,417 to 52,172. The increase, apart from the natural increase may again be attributed to considerable immigration. Of the 1,08,304 immigrants, which amounted to 232 per mille of actual population, the largest, viz. 127 per mille came from other places, 102 per mille from other districts, and 3 per mille of actual population from the Central Province's States. The border immigration which was considerable from Indore (7,000) and United Provinces (now Uttar Pradesh, 6,000) in 1921, increased to about 10,000 and 9,000, respectively, in 1931.

The population of Khandwa and Harsud Tahsils, which had declined during the last decade, registered considerable increase during this decade (1921-31).

1. Census of India, 1921, C P. and Berar, pt I, p. 31.
2. Ibid, 1931, p. 36

Population of Harsud Tahsil increased by far the most, viz., 30.55 per cent. The increase in Harsud Tahsil may be ascribed to heavy immigration of cattle-breeding Ahirs, whose number increased to 11,554 from 3,658 in 1921. Population of Khandwa and Burhanpur Tashils, however, increased by 13.47 per cent and 16.91 per cent, respectively.

During the decade 1931-41, the population increased only by 9.91 per cent. The mean decennial growth-rate declined from 16.4 in 1921-31 to 9.4 in 1931-41. This was owing to the unhealthy conditions prevailing during the decade which reduced the decennial rate of natural increase from 11.2 to 5.7 in 1931-41. The mean decennial birth-rate was recorded as 45.3 while the death-rate was 39.6. Population increased by 44,845 or 9.91 per cent during this decade and stood at about 4.97 lakhs. The net percentage variation during the 40 years, since 1901, worked out at 56.78 per cent. The increase during the decade was shared by all the tahsils of the District. Population of Burhanpur Tahsil increased by far the most, viz., 13.11 per cent while that of Harsud and Khandwa Tahsils registered an increase of 12.58 per cent and 7.23 per cent, respectively.

Between 1941-51 the decennial rate of natural increase (registered) further depressed to 3.9 resulting from the corresponding decrease in mean decennial death and birth-rates during the decade. The rates (registered) were 37.7 (birth) and 41.6 (death). The population increased only by about 26 thousand persons or 5.27 per cent during this decade. The net variation during the 50 years since 1901, worked out to an increase of 65.05 per cent. The increase was shared by all the tahsils more or less equally. Increase in Burhanpur Tahsil was by 7.38 per cent, while in Khandwa and Harsud Tahsils by 4.29 per cent and 4.07 per cent, respectively.

The gradual fall in the mean decennial growth-rate from 16.4 in 1921-30 to 5.1 in 1941-51 should be analysed apart from the cutting down of the decennial rate of natural increase to a third (from 11.2 in 1921-30 to 3.9 in 1941-50), in the light of the magnitude of migration over the period, which, so far, had been the most important contributory factor in the variation of population.

The following Table may be seen in this context.—

Name of the tract where born	Immigrants 1931	Percentage to total population	Immigrants 1951	Percentage to total population
1. The district of enumeration	3,58,547	66 79	4,41,728	84.38
2. Other districts of Madhya Pradesh	49,312	10.56	40,677	7 77
3 Adjacent and other states of India.	58,967	12.63	35,336	6 75
4. Beyond India	105	0 02	5,755	1.10

Though broadly the pattern of migration has remained undisturbed yet the magnitude thereof has been disturbed by two factors. These were the

partition of the Country and the extended *de-facto* system of enumeration in 1951 Census, with a specified period of 20 days for enumeration. The number of immigrants per mille of actual population declined from 232 in 1931 to 156 in 1951, owing largely to the change in the procedure of enumeration. A fall in respect of immigrants from adjoining and other States in India from 12.63 per cent in 1931 to 6.75 per cent in 1951, and an increase from 0.02 per cent in 1931 to 1.10 per cent in 1951 in respect of immigrants from beyond India, are the outcome of the common factor, viz., the partition of the country and its consequent effects. The general preponderance of women was recorded among the immigrants from the adjoining erstwhile State of Madhya Bharat, and also from Bhopal, Amravati, Balaghat, Buldhana and Hoshangabad Districts of the State. The migration from Uttar Pradesh seemed to be of a semi-permanent nature while from Bombay, it appeared to be of permanent nature. Migration from some important places into the District can be seen from the following Table.—

Place/State	Immigrants		
	Persons	Males	Females
Uttar Pradesh	3,726	2,141	1,585
Bombay	13,919	7,912	6,007
Madhya Bharat	12,045	3,262	8,783
Bhopal	1,517	758	759
Buldhana	2,924	1,312	1,612
Hoshangabad	20,209	8 620	11,589
Amaravati	7,464	3,499	3,965
Balaghat	2,999	34	2,965

The following decade 1951-61 witnessed an increase of an unprecedented nature. The population increased to 6,85,150 persons, recording an increase of about 30.88 per cent over 1951. Since 1901 the population has more than doubled itself or more precisely increased by 116.02 per cent during these 60 years. The increase was shared by all the tahsils. The population of Khandwa Tahsil increased by 27 26 per cent, of Burhanpur Tahsil by 34.05 per cent and of Harsud Tahsil by 32.4 per cent.

As the information about the twin factors, viz., vital statistics and migration is not available, the influence of the same can not be assessed over the extraordinary growth of population recorded in 1961 Census.

Density of Population

The population of 6.85 lakhs against an area of 4,126 sq. miles (10,680.0 sq. kms.) gives an average density of 166 persons per sq. mile, much below the State density of 192, according to 1961 Census.

The recasted density according to the present area of the District is shown in Table below.—

District/Tahsil	Area in sq. miles (1961)	Density@						
		1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961
Khandwa	1,777	—	164	164	186	199	208	264
Burhanpur	565	—	191	220	257	291	312	422
Harsud	720	—	108	93	122	137	143	189
District Total	2,461 4,126	129 (77)*	154 (92)	156 (93)	183 (110)	202 (121)	213 (127)	278 (166)

Note:—The density has been calculated on the basis of adjusted population figures and 1961 area figures.

@The denisty of tahsils and District has been recasted on the basis of 1961 State Survey area figures, which excluded 1664. 1 sq. miles of forest area, for which the tahsil break-up is not available.

*The figures in the brackets are of District density, recasted on the basis of 1961 State Survey area figures which include the forest area also.

The above Table reveals a continuous and steady increase in the density during the last 60 years. More than two-fold increase in the density over the period has been registered. The low forest-clad hills, on the north of the Tapti valley, which run through the District from west to east, rendered considerable tract of land urcultivated and sparsely populated. It is responsible for the low density, particularly in Harsud Tahsil, where large area has been under forest. The decade 1911-21, which witnessed the twin menace of plague and influenza epidemics, caused considerable mortality and consequent emigration resulting into an almost stationary population during the decade. The density in Harsud Tahsil, however, declined from 108 in 1911 to 93 per sq. mile in 1921. The intra-District migration also disturbed the density of rural and urban areas, more in favour of the former, owing to the inhabitants, who encamped in temporary huts near the infected areas.

Most noticeable increase in the population has come during the last decade when the density moved from 127 to 166 in 1961. Both in respect of rural and urban densities, Burhanpur Tahsil with 19,131 urban and 263 rural density stood out significantly.

Distribution between Urban and Rural Areas

The District is about 4, 126 sq. miles in its extent (10,686 sq. kms) comprising 4112 4 sq. miles of rural and 13 4 sq. miles of urban area. Burhanpur with 90,870 persons is the most urbanized Tahsil in the District whereas, Harsud is entirely a rural tract. Apart from two Municipal towns, viz., Burhanpur and Khandwa, a new Nepanagar factory township also emerged at the time of 1961 Census in Burhanpur Tahsil.

As per Census of 1961, there were 1205 villages in the District of which 1082 were inhabited and 123 uninhabited, besides three towns. The number of villages and towns in 1961 can best be seen from the following Table.—

District/ Tahsil	Area in sq. miles	No. of villages		Rural Population	No. of Towns	Urban Population
		Inhabited	Uninhabited			
Khandwa	1,176.8	478	68	2,47,328	1	63,505
Burhanpur	564.8	257	35	1,47,374	2	90,870
Harsud	720.1	347	20	1,36073	—	—
District East Nimar	4,125.8 (4,131.84)	1,082	123	5,30,775	3	1,54,375

Note:—1. The bracketed area of the District is according to Surveyor-General of India.
2. The tahsil area figures do not include 1664 1 sq. miles of forest area, which is included in the District total.

The bulk of the District population lived in small villages in the range of 200 to 1,000 population. As per 1961 Census out of the 1,082 populated villages, 270 or 24.95 per cent were with less than 200 persons, and covered about 5.3 per cent of the District population. The 721 or 66.64 per cent villages in the range of 200 to 1,000 persons, covered the majority of the District population, viz., about 64.5 per cent of the rest, 68 or 6.28 per cent villages in the range of 1,000 to 2,000 persons covered about 17.3 per cent of the District population. However, only 22 or 2.03 per cent villages in the range of 2,000 to 5,000 had about 11.6 per cent of the population. The most populated village in the District was Shahpur with a population of 5,998 persons, and largest in area was Machgaon with 16,663 acres, both in Burhanpur Tahsil, according to 1951 Census.

The urban population (43,422), which constituted about 21 per cent of the District population in 1872, increased by about 5.7 per cent in 1891. The first cotton ginning factory in Burhanpur was established during the decade 1881-91, after which the growth of two towns, viz., Khandwa and Burhanpur, became steady.

The growth of urban and rural population during the last 60 years, since 1901, can best be seen from Table below.—

Census year	Total population	Population			
		Urban	Percentage variation	Rural	Percentage variation.
1901	3,17,173	52,742	—	2,64,431	—
1911	3,78,571	44,381	15.85	3,34,190	26.38
1921	3,83,954	62,718	41 32	3,21,236	-3.88
1931	4,52,431	78,688	25.46	3,73,743	16.35
1941	4,97,276	92,480	17 53	4,04,796	8.31
1951	5,23,496	1,22,006	31.93	4,01,490	-0.82
1961	6,85,150	1,54,375	26.53	5,30,775	32.20

During the period 1901-61, rural population increased by about 100.72 per cent, while urban population increased by 192.70 per cent. The disparity in two rates is explained by the commercial and industrial growth of Khandwa and Burhanpur towns and consequent immigration of labour force and traders in search of employment. There were 32,060 immigrants in the urban areas in 1951. The mean decennial birth-rate (registered) declined from 42.4 in 1921-31 to 41.5 in 1941-51 and the death-rate from 34.4 in 1921-31 to 30.4 in 1941-51 in East Nimar. This explains the support extended by the rate of natural increase which stepped up from 8.3 in 1921-30 to 11.6 in the next decade but declained to 11.1 in 1951-60 decade.

"The proportionately higher rate of growth in rural areas of Khandwa and Burhanpur Tahsils was registered during 1951-61 decade. In Burhanpur, inspite of springing up of the new town, Nepanagar, the rural population outstripped the urban population in growth by more than eight per cent. This reverse trend is suggestive of a radical improvement in public health of rural areas, particularly of Burhanpur and Harsud Tahsils, where rural increase has been of high order."

Since 1866 to 1951, there were only two towns in the District, viz., Khandwa and Burhanpur. Nepanagar factory township was added only at the time of 1961 Census. In 1866, Khandwa town had a population of 9,700 persons which increased to 19,401 or by about 100 per cent in 1901. However, Burhanpur town which had a population of 34,000 persons in 1866, declined to 33,341 or by 1.94 per cent in 1901. The population of three towns of the District at different censuses from 1901 to 1961 is shown in the following Table.—

Towns	Area in 1961 (sq miles)	Density in 1961 (per sq. mile)	Population						
			1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961
Khandwa	8.71	7,291	19,401	21,604	26,802	34,622	38,493	51,940	63,505
				(+11.36)	(+24.06)	(+29.18)	(+11.18)	(+34.93)	(+22.27)
Burhanpur	4.39	18,699	33,341	22,777	35,916	44,066	53,987	70,066	82,090
				(–31.68)	(+57.65)	(+22.69)	(+22.51)	(+29.78)	(+17.16)
Nepanagar Factory Township	0.36	24,389	—	—	—	—	—	—	8,780
Total Urban	13.46	50,379	52,742	44,381	62,718	78,688	92,480	1,22,006	1,54,375
				(–15.85)	(+41.32)	(+25.46)	(+17.53)	(+31.93)	(+26.53)

Note:– Figures in the brackets are percentages of decade variation.

The factors responsible for the rapid urbanization took roots in the last two decades of the 19th Century. The industrialization and consequent growth of trade and commerce resulted in attracting considerable immigrants, labour force and traders, in the urban areas of the District. During the initial decade of the present Century, four cotton-ginning factories, a glass manufacturing concern besides gold and silver lace industry, cotton and silk weaving industries in Burhan-

pur town, and nearly 17 ginning and pressing factories in Khandwa town were working.

Except for the unhealthy decade of 1901-11, the pace of urbanization remained steady all through the following 50 years. The initial set-back, which caused a 15.85 per cent drop in the urban population in 1911 was owing to the out-break of plague in 1901, which was more severe in Burhanpur town. This resulted in the number of persons leaving from urban to rural areas. The rural population consequently, increased by 26.38 per cent during the decade. Burhanpur town suffered most by losing 31.68 per cent, while on the contrary Khandwa gained by about 11.36 per cent during the decade.

During 1911-21, the rural population, however, declined by about 3.88 per cent owing to the several bad seasons and particular severity of influenza epidemic of 1918-19 in rural areas, which had wiped out a number of Korku villages.

The rural population again suffered a set-back of 0.82 per cent in the decade 1941-51. This decrease seems anomalous in the face of 2 point natural increase in the decennial rate (registered) in the rural population, and the bulk of immigrant population settling in the rural areas. Large increase in the urban population during this decade, viz., 31.93 per cent apparently stems from an 11.1 decennial rate of natural increase (registered) and an influx of about 39 per cent of immigrants into urban areas. The factor which might reasonably explain the decline in rural population in the context of urban increase, may be the rural to urban shift of population.

Displaced Population

Small section of the lengthy caravan of the completely up-rooted and totally shattered humanity, which was forced to leave Pakistan after the partition of the Country in 1947, was received in East Nimar too, during the following years of the decade. They settled here with all possible help from the Central and State Governments and public at large. Of the 5,665 displaced persons arrived till February 1951, majority came from West Pakistan. Dadu and Larkhana were the main centres from which displaced persons came to East Nimar.

A number of important legislations were enacted by the State Government for the rehabilitation and relief of these persons.

The following Table shows the year and origin of the displaced population.—

The Place of Origin	Years of Arrival						Total	
	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951 (upto Feb.)	Male	Female
West Pakistan	—	1,509	3,506	307	6	—	2,849	2,479
East Pakistan	—	2	3	9	1	—	15	—
District not stated	—	238	66	16	2	—	208	114
District Total	—	1,749	3,575	332	9	—	3,072	2,593

It is evident from the above Table that the majority of the displaced persons arrived in the District in the year 1947 and 1948. As large as 93.5 per cent of the displaced persons remained concentrated in the urban areas, owing to their business interests. About 99.5 per cent of them were engaged in the non-agricultural pursuits; commerce alone accounted for about 71.8 per cent of the displaced persons.

LANGUAGE

East Nimar, by reasons of its peculiar history and important geographical position, has been a region, wherein no linguistic homogeneity has existed since long. The diversity of speech has been great and that too of a long standing nature. The Table below shows the distribution of population according to language as ascertained at various censuses from 1901 to 1931. During this period the District had undergone vast territorial changes. The figures in the Table relate to the respective old areas. Besides this, the conceptual changes of classification have rendered the figures incomparable in respect of showing any real variation in the proportion of speakers of different languages from census to census.

Languages	No. of Speakers in			
	1901	1911	1921	1931
Hindi	14,235	2,56,791	2,59,263	1,73,954
Rajasthani	2,29,864	—	13,551	1,28,981
Marathi	45,823	54,318	60,361	69,915
Gujarati	12,532	9,103	9,371	10,600
Korku	17,220	28,021	32,451	46,010
Gondi	1,693	5,779	3,268	9,023
Bhili	11,263	22,137	16,182	25,308

Note:—(1) Hindi includes Urdu also.
(2) Bhili (11,263) in 1901 is included in Rajasthani.

The great diversity of speech is closely associated with the peculiar history of the District for centuries together. Rajputs were the early immigrant settlers of the District. Later during the period of Mohammedan rule, the cultural influences of Gujarat, Rajputana and Malwa in the west and the Marathas in the south began to be felt in the District. After this period also, the immigration of permanent nature continued. The immigrants brought with them their own languages In addition to Rajasthani, Malvi, Marathi, Gujarati, Urdu, Bhili, Banjari and a few other dialects were also introduced in the District. During the Mohammedan period, Burhanpur Tahsil formed a part of Subah Khandesh, which was an area predominantly occupied by the speakers of Marathi Burhanpur still has a large number of Marathi speaking population. During the same period, Burhanpur being an industrial and commercial centre witnessed the influx of a number of traders from Gujarat who settled there. This explains why Burhanpur has a considerable Gujarati speaking population. Urdu was introduced by the Mohammedan rulers, especially Mughals. Burhanpur for many years was either

a capital of the seat of Viceroyalty of the Deccan. Therefore, Urdu remained confined to the vicinity of Burhanpur, and even today the majority of the Urdu speaking people are found around Burhanpur.

The District has a proud privilege of having its own speciaal dilect. It is the home of Nimadi which takes its name from the region. Nimadi has been described as a dialect of Rajasthani in the Census Report of 1931. Further, it is observed that the Nimadi dialect is the outcome of the mixture of Malvi with Bhili and Khandesi. George Grierson, in his report on Linguistic Survey of India, describes Nimadi as a 'patois with peculiarities of its own. The peculiarities are due to the mixture and influence of many languages and dialects, and such being the case, Nimadi is not a definite dialect.[1] The same authority further states that Nimadi is thus a form of Rajasthani like Marwari, Banjari and Malvi.[2] Rajasthani in turn is stated to be closely related to Gujarati. Nimadi is an accepted dialect of western Hindi. There are many forms of the Nimadi dialect and their structures are influenced by many languages. Thus Nimadi of the Rajputs is said to have been greatly influenced by the dialect of Rajasthani. Nimadi of the Nagar and Maharashtra Brahmans is influenced, respectively, by Gujarati and Marathi. Nimadi of the Gujars is said to be more akin to Malvi. The form of Nimadi spoken by the Kunbis is again said to be connected with Gujarati, and Nimadi of the Balahis is shown as a mixture of Malvi, Bhili and Khandeshi.[3]

In Nimadi "The principal peculiarity in pronunciation is the change of every long *e* which occurs in Rajasthani to *a*. Thus the sign of the agent case is ***na***, not ***ne*** and of the locative ***ma***, not ***me*** So ***aga*** for ***age*** before, and ***rahach***, he remains. Nimari is not fond of nasal sounds and frequently drops them. Thus ***dat*** not *dant*, tooth. As in Malvi aspirates are frequently dropped, as ***hat*** for ***hath***, hand; *bhuko* for ***bhukho***, hungry. The letter *l* and ***n*** are interchanged, as *lim* for *nim* tree. The letter *j* is often interchanged with ***ch***. Thus 'he goes' is both *jawaj* and *Jawach*. Strong masculine nouns in *o* form their oblique form in *a*, as in Malvi. Thus ***ghodo***, a horse, ***ghoda ko***, of a horse. To form the plural the termination ***na*** is added to the oblique form of the singular. Thus ***ghodana***, horses, ***ghodanako***, of horses.... The instrumental ablative particle is ***si*** or ***su*** for ***se***, as ***betan bap si kahyo***, the son said to the father. The influence of the Bhili dialect and of Khandeshi is most evident in the conjugation of the Nimari verb."[4]

Hindi, as the language of the majority has come to this District rather late. It was also brought by the immigrant settlers. received from the north. Majority of the speakers of Hindi is to day confined to the Harsud Tahsil of the District. Hindi being the *Lingua Franca* is now understood and used by most people of the District speaking different mother-tongues. Even tribes, speaking their own languages, use Hindi for communication with others. Thus, it has become the

1. Census of India, 1931, Vol. XII, C.P. and Berar, Pt. I, p 302.
2 Ibid.
3. K. L. Hans, *Nimadi aur Uska Sahitya*, pp 65-68.
4. Nimar District Gezetteer, p. 55.

unifying force which has created and preserved the unity amidst the diversity of speech.

In 1951, about 93 names of languages, including dialects, were returned as spoken by the people of the District. Of them, only about 24 claimed more than 100 speakers. The number of speakers of the principal languages in 1951 and 1961 is given in the following Table.—

Mother tongue	Number of Speakers		Percentage to total District Population	
	1951	1961	1951	1961
Hindi	1,76,342	2,08,704	33 7	30.5
Nimadi	1,10,406	1,60,877	21.1	23.5
Marathi	81,142	1,08,706	15.5	15.9
Korku	58,881	72,101	11.2	10.5
Urdu	35,594	66,173	6.8	9.7
Bhili	14,550	14,862	2.8	2.2
Banjari	12,865	14,988	2.5	2 2
Gujarati	11,368	13,817	2.2	2 0
Gondi	7,754	9,216	1.5	1.4
Sindhi	4,675	6,712	0 9	1.0
Marwari	4,119	2,305	0.8	0.3

The above Table clearly shows that the majority of the District population speaks three languages, viz., Hindi, Nimadi and Marathi. Sindhi was enumerated in 1951 for the first time owing to the rehabilitation of Sindhi displaced persons who arrived after the partition of the Country.

It is interesting to analyse further the pockets of concentration of language groups which bear testimony to the peculiar history of the region. Those who invaded the region, settled permanently, encouraging trade and commerce also to follow. This explains the introduction of Urdu, Gujarati and Rajasthani in all its forms, in the District. Marathi, Korku, Urdu and Gujarati showed concentration in Burhanpur, while Hindi, Nimadi and Bhili in Khandwa Tahsil. Harsud, which is entirely a rural tract, showed concentration of Korku, Banjari and Gondi, apart from Hindi. Urdu and Gujarati, which are mainly the languages of the trading community, are found in the urban areas of the District.

Korku, which is the language of about 10 5 per cent of the District population (1961), belongs to Munda group. which is supposed to be the oldest in India and is the last remanent of the pre-Dravidian population.

Bhili is the third important language in the rural areas of Khandwa Tahsil and is spoken by about 2.2 per cent of the District population. "The Bhili of Nimar," stated Grierson, "is now almost a Marathi dialect having been strongly influenced by the Marathi in this district. It is mixed form of speech, and the base of the dialect is the same form of Gujarati Bhili."[1]

1. G. A. Grierson, Linguistic Survey of India, Vol. IX, pt. III, pp. 7,174.

Banjari is spoken by about 2.2 per cent of the District population. It is mainly concentrated in Harsud and rural areas of Burhanpur Tahsil. Banjari is a mixed form of speech, but basically it has the same western form of Rajasthani, the other element being the borrowings from the speech of the locality.

Bilingualism

The great diversity of speech, as stated earlier, has resulted in creating large areas of bilingualism in the District. For the first time information on bilingualism was collected in 1931 Census, and again in 1951. The following Table gives the extent of bilingualism prevalent in the District.—

Mother tongue	Total No of persons returned as speaking a language subsidiary to Mother-tongue				Principal subsidiary languages 1961	
	1951	Percentage to total speakers	1961	Percentage to total speakers	Hindi	Nimadi
Hindi	20,833	11 8	12,625	6.1	—	1,246 (9.9)
Marathi	16770	20 7	24,863	22.9	23,580 (94.8)	523 (2.1)
Nimadi	—	—	17,584	10.9	16,864 (95.9)	—
Korku	27,879	47 14	34,872	48.2	34,166 (98 2)	497 (1.4)
Urdu	7,996	22 5	11,947	18.1	9,014 (75.6)	460 (3.9)
Banjari	7,702	59 9	9,264	61.8	8,959 (96.7)	233 (2.5)
Bhili	5,617	38 9	4,922	33.1	1,372 (27 9)	3,395 (69.0)
Gujarati	5,498	48.4	6,416	46.4	5,315 (82.8)	151 (2.4)
Gondi	4,126	53 2	5,408	58.7	4,947 (91.7)	165 (3.1)
Sindhi	1,426	30 8	2,403	35.8	2,246 (93.5)	1

Note:—Figures in brackets indicate percentage to the total bilingual speakers

The above Table shows that at both the enumerations, percentage of bilingualism was higher among the speakers of tribal languages. However, it was the lowest among the persons who returned Hindi as their mother-tongue. Being a border District, linguistic diversity has been great in all the tahsils of the District, yet Burhanpur stood out significantly bilingual.

RELIGION AND CASTE

Since ages India has been the Country extremely tolerant of different doctrines, varying from pure philosophy to almost animistic creed, manifested mainly in the religions followed by the tribal people of the hills and forests. The District has always shown proverbial catholicity in respect of tolerance of different faiths. Animism, Hinduism with numerous old and new sects, and Jainism have since ages influenced the life of the people of this District. With the advent of Faruqi dynasty in the region in the 15th Century, Islam entered this area and flourished during the rule of Mughals. Charistianity came in the 19th Century with the British rule over this territory. All these religions, together with newly introduced Sikhism, Zoroastrianism, etc., are still flourishing in the District. The

Table given below shows the number of followers of various important religions as registered at the various censuses from 1872 to 1961.

Year	Hindu	Animist/ Tribal Religion	Muslim	Jain	Sikh	Christian	Buddhism
1872	1,54,889	—	21,449	545	—	420	—
1881	1,99,290	—	24,426	1,247	—	789	—
1891	2,23,230	—	27,501	1,455	—	565	—
1901	2,81,904	8,830	33,126	1,631	—	1,399	—
1911	3,45,821	6,803	38,428	1,664	144	3,793	—
1921	3,35,787	14,668	39,987	1,912	146	3,852	—
1931	3,72,583	35,429	50,925	2,204	691	4,928	—
1941	3,29,103	1,12,570	60,306	2,202	5,084	3,898	—
1951	4,48,694	—	66,435	2,383	2,416	2,716	88
1961	5,78,818	—	85,273	3,332	1,729	2,927	13,024

Hindus constitute 84.5 per cent of the population, and are most numerous according to 1961 Census. In rural areas their proportion is as large as 91.3 per cent of the rural population, while in urban areas it sinks to 61 per cent. Muslims are the second largest religious group in the District accounting for 12.4 per cent of its population. They are more numerous in urban areas where they account for about a third of the population. Buddhism which accounts for 1 9 per cent, Jains 0.5 per cent, Christians 0.4 per cent and Sikhs 0.3 per cent are other important religious groups according to 1961 Census. The Buddhists make 2 2 per cent of urban and 1.8 per cent of the rural population as in the year 1961.

The jurisdictional and conceptual changes from census to census have rendered the figures incomparable. The gradual decline of the followers of animistic faiths in the initial decades was owing mainly to two reasons. First, the emigration of tribals in search of lucrative jobs, and secondly as observed by Risely in 1901, that the fall in the number was owing to the 'process of gradual and insensible transformation of tribals into castes.' Since 1951, the classification of animistic religions has been dispensed with.

Animism, exercising a considerable influence over the religious beliefs of the aboriginal population, varied from tribe to tribe. "Some usually worshipped a principal god. For instance, Bara Deo is the great god of the Gonds, and the term is some times used as a name for all the gods of their theology.[1] "When the aboriginal tribes came in contact with the followers of Hinduism, they were gradually Hinduized. Bhera Pen, or Bara Deo was translated to Mahadeva. The catholic nature of Hinduism has made it very easy for aborigines to become Hindus. It has become impossible to demarcate a line between Animism and Hinduism. The results of the growing contacts of Hinduism with the Animistic beliefs of the aboriginal tribes were in fact very apparent even a century ago.[2]

1 Census of India, 1931, C P and Berar, pt. I, p 333.
2. Ibid. p 34

The aboriginals were always found to be willing "to worship a few more gods if by doing so they could gain some material or social benefit."[1] On the other hand, the religion of Hindu villagers has also been greatly influenced by the age-long beliefs of the primitive tribes,[2] because Hindus have "no objection to including tribal gods in a pantheon of thirty-three crores of deities."[3]

East Nimar is not an exception to the general tendencies of Hinduism found everywhere else. The tribes entered the fold of Hinduism with their deities and beliefs in their quest for social ascendancy. Hinduism, in fact, has influenced people in such a way that it has left an impression that "it is a social system rather than an exclusive body of religious beliefs."[4] It includes extremely divergent attitudes towards all the problems of life, usually treated as religious. Nearly a century ago J. Forsyth described the popular religion of the District. He observed that the District had been at one time "the seat of the strongest form of the Sivite and Vishnuvite faiths, as evidenced by the numerous temples to these deities still extant, yet in recent times the devotion paid to the former has become cold and heartless, while the latter has been almost wholly replaced by the more popular of his incarnations, Rama and Krishna."[5] Though the urban people worship the recognised deities of the Hindu pantheon, yet the villagers and tribals pay more reverence to the personified form of god of destruction and deified powers of nature, e.g. Mata Devi, the goddess of small pox, etc. Every village has a village god, generally Hanumana whom the people worship. Besides, they revere several other rural deities who preside over agricultural operations. Ramanandi sect,[6] introduced in the District some 250 years ago, popularised the worship of Rama, while the other sect of Gokulashata Gossains popularised Krishna worship.[7] Both these incarnations command at present most reverence and worship.

The tendency towards canonization of religious teachers has created, lately, some new centres of religious attachment. Of the deified human beings, Singaji has been one of the objects of reverence. Singaji, a cowherd, lived some four centuries ago and died in the halo of sanctity. "By several miraculous appearances and other supernatural circumstances....he acquired a deified character for himself after his death."[8] The wide popular devotion to him is manifested at a fair still held at his tomb in Piplaya village in the month of Asvina (September/October).

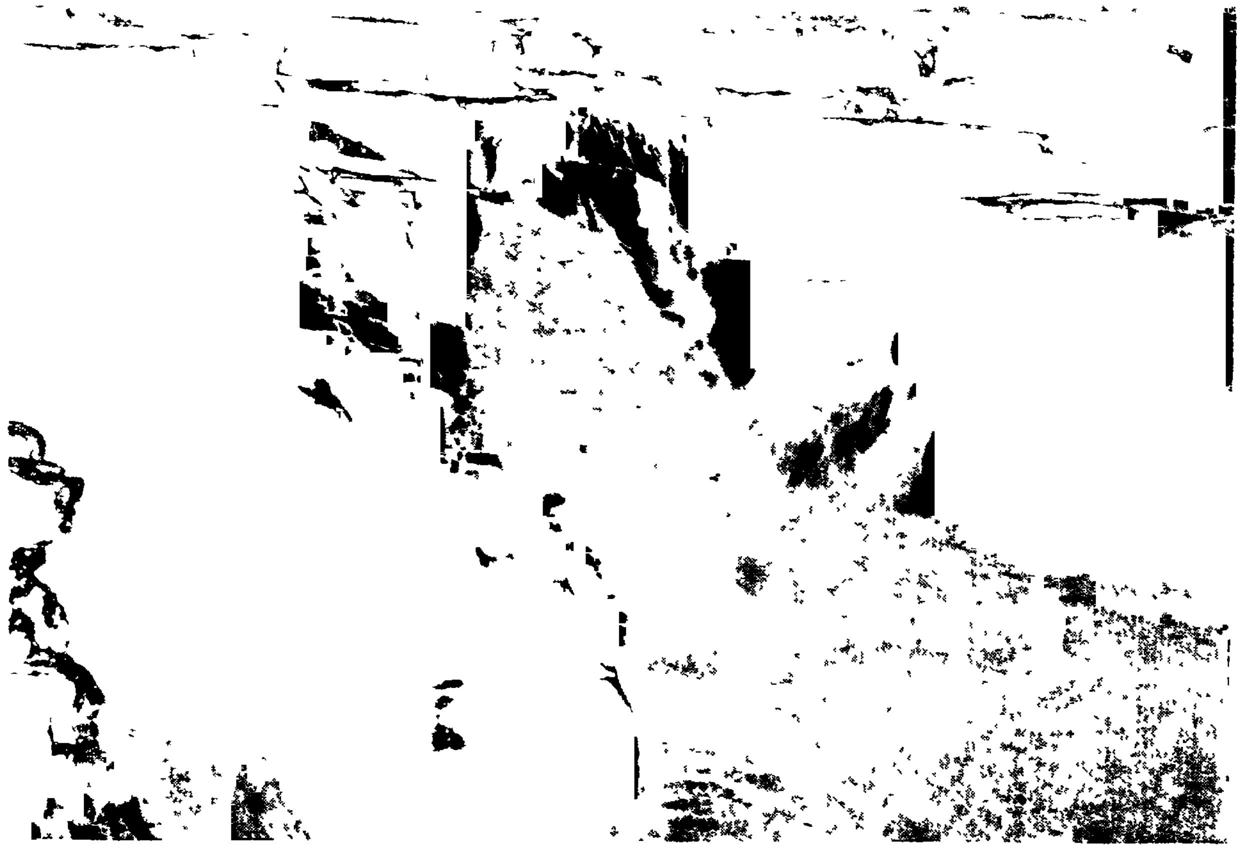
"Not the least remarkable saint in the calendar is a Mussulman Peer named Mohomed Shah Doola Durvesh, who founded a sect,"[9] now known as 'Sat-Pantha'

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1. W. V. Grigson, Aboriginal Problem in C. P. and Berar, p. 8.
2. Census of India, 1931, C.P. and Berar, pt. I, p. 324
3. W. V Grigson, op. cit, p. 8.
4. Census of India, 1931, C. P. and Berar, pt. I, p. 324.
5. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, pp. 253-55.
6. Ibid, p. 254.
7. Ibid.
8. Ibid p. 255
9. Ibid.



A Fair at Singaji's Samadhi, Piplya Singaji



Waterfall, Dharakshetra, Punasa

at Burhanpur about 300 years ago. He, it is said, was well versed in the Hindu scriptures and attracted to his teachings rural population of the region. Maratha Kunbis were chief among his followers whom he never tried to convert to Islam. He preached one god of Islam as the Bhagawan of the Hindus. On his death he was canonized." His followers call him *Peer* and worship him.

Dada Dhuniwale, a deified saint of the recent past, commands considerable reverence and a following in the District. His *durbar* is held in a village near Khandwa and persons from distant places come for worship. Besides, there are followers of other sects also. viz., Kabir. Dadu, Swami Narayan, etc.

It cannot precisely be stated as to when Jainism took roots in the District. "A few inscriptions dating from A.D. 1132 to 1263 mark the period at which this religion was probably in its glory in Nimar........All Nimar appears to have been at this time in the hands of Jains."[1] "Numerous remains of finely carved temples are found at various places in Prant Nimar, and at Khandwa, Mandhata in the modern district,"[2] Puranic literature[3] of the Hindus and contemporary Prakrit and Sanskrit literature of the Jains corroborate the view that Jainism was an important religion of this region in the early centuries. It is certin that in later period too, Jainism commanded a considerable following in this District. Numerous images of Jain Tirthankaras of the period between the 12th and the 15th centuries are still traceable at various places in the District. These images are located in Jain temples at Khandwa, Mandhata or Siddavarkut, Burhanpur and Shahpur. The Jain temples at Asir, Harsud, Bahadurpur, Koladit and other places have been deserted since long.

As has been stated earlier, Islam entered this District with the Faruquis who established their sway over Khandesh. Burhanpur became the capital of Faruqi kings and later an important seat of the viceroyalty of the Deccan, under their successors, the Mughal rulers. Thus, for nearly three centuries, Burhanpur attracted many Muslim saints who spread Islam in this part of the Country. Due to royal patronage it became an important religion of the region, and naturally, Burhanpur remained an important centre of Islam. Even to this day it is a local centre of Islam. The Muslims are the followers of prophet Mohammad. Mohammad was a monotheist, i.e.. a believer in only one God, whom he called 'Allah'. Muslim Sufis or mystics who came and settled in the District under the royal patronage commanded devotion from both Muslims and Hindus of the region.

The Musilms have no castes in the real sense of the terms. Their two main sections are called the Shias and the Sunnis. Large majority of Shias of the District are Ismailis, and to be more specific they belong to one of the sub-sects of Ismailis, known as Daudi Bohoras. They have developed their endogamous group. In this District, Burhanpur is the great centre of this community. Shahdara

1. Ibid, p. 254.
2. Ibid
3. Ibid, p. 255
4. Ibid.

a place about one mile from Burhanpur railway station is the burial place for their religious heads called Mullas. The Sunnis of the District are prominently Hanafis or Shaikhs. Besides, persons belonging to other sub-divisions of the Sunnis are also found in the District in small numbers.

The class of weavers of Islamic faith, belonging to Sunni sect in the District call themselves Momins. They have their own Panchayats.

Christianity does not claim a long history in this District. Its advent coincided with that of British rule. Probably by the last quarter of the 19th Century, Christian missionaries began to penetrate the region for the spread of Christianity, which like Islam is a monotheistic religion. Aboriginal tribes and other backward classes to some extent contributed towards the spread of this faith by embracing it. It could not get an important position in the District. Christians, either belonging to Roman Catholic or Methodist (American) Churches, settled in the District.

The Buddhism, which is now an important religious group in the District had a following of 13,024 persons in 1961, as compared to 88 in 1951. Of these, a majority numbering 9,412 have been returned from Burhanpur Tahsil. The reason for this sudden rise is that a large number of the Mahars in the District embraced Buddhism in 1957.

Castes and Sub-Castes

Since centuries, Hinduism being the religion of the majority of the people of this District, practised caste system with all its rigidity. The caste, in fact, then regulated the whole life of a Hindu, his social position and usually his occupation. But now though the castes are there, their rigidity has vanished. The rigours of the caste system have been impaired by the spread of education which infused political awakening. The reformists' organisations and the introduction of modern means of communication and transport also contributed greatly towards its disintegration. Caste is no more now the pivot of the society. One can freely choose his occupation and mode of life. Formerly, traditional occupation gave relative status and gradation in the social hierarchy. The removal of this brarrier has created general social tolerance. Though caste considerations are still strong in the case of settling matrimonial alliances, new liberal ideas give less exclusiveness to the castes and general relaxation in orthodoxy has been to some extent achieved.

Brahmans

It is not surprising that the District like East Nimar which attracted from time to time various clans, communities and tribes, has a variety of castes In the year 1866, when the first regular census was conducted, as many as 173 castes and sub-castes were recorded in this District. Since then, the basis of classification of castes has undergone changes from census to census. The majority of the population now belongs to the castes or sub-castes which are broadly called Hindus. The caste as a segmentary division of the society is largely endogamous in character.

The long supremacy of the Peshwa in the region threw the whole administration, and much of the land itself in the hands of Maharashtra Brahmans. Their appearance in the District probably, dates from the beginning of the 19th Century. They are either of Deshasth sub-caste belonging to Poona, or Konkanastha from Konkan. Other groups of Brahmans popular in the District are Narmdeo, so called after the river Narmada, Nagar Brahamans, immigrants from Gujarat and Marwari Brahmans. They are an enlightened class, engaged not only in their traditional occupation but also in trade, commerce, Government service, and the like.

Banias

Popularly, the caste engaged in trade and commerce is known as Banias. The immigrant Banias from Gujarat and Marwar are known by the place of origin "The first settlers in the District were probably the Parwars", who are Jains by religion and to whom the remains of Jain temples and tanks at Khandwa may be attributed. Agarwals are an important sub-division in the District. Another sub-caste of Banias in the region is of Khandelwal, some of whom profess Hinduism while others follow Jainism. Most of these sub-castes are endogamous in character.

Rajputs

It is a most numerous caste in the District of whom Chauhans and Pawars both of whom once ruled parts of the District, are important. They are the pioneers in the District paving the way for other immigrant communities found in the District. The one-time militant race has now settled as cultivators in the District. "There are also some impure septs such as Raghuvansis, and Dhakars, while a large body of Rajputs are known as *chhoti-tar*, or of low class."[1]

Kunbis

Kunbis form generally the agricultural class of repute in this District. They are said to have migrated from Gujarat to this region during the rule of the Muslims over this tract. In the District there are Leva or Karwa Kunbis, many of whom being engaged in making *dal* or pulses, came to be known Dalia Kunbis. The Karwas had a peculiar custom as regards marriage. Once in twelve years when their *guru* in Gujarat sent them a notice, the marriages could be performed. The Kunbis are again divided into some other sub-castes such as Pati, etc., each of which has a number of exogamous septs. The southern part of the District has a population of Maratha Kunbis, who again form an endogamous group.

Gujars

The Gujars are also reputed cultivators of the District. They too migrated from Gujarat during the Muslim rule and settled here. They have their own divisions like Bad-Gujar, Rewa or Mundle Gujar etc. All these Gujars are well-to-do people Gujar families have their Kul Devis whom they revere particularly.

1. Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 67.

Banjaras

The District has a fairly large population of the Banjaras, the caste of carriers and drivers of pack-bullock. Formerly, 'they used to carry all the grain traffic of the country in vast droves of bullocks.' The District of East Nimar had always been one of the main sites of Banjara *tandas* or camps, each having their own naik or headman. The Banjaras are now a settled clan and have made a good name as cultivators. They have several Rajput clan names as their sub-division. "The caste came into importance when they were entrusted with the food supplies of the armies of the Mughals and Marathas." They were stigmatized as criminals but restoration of law and order situation in the District naturally affected their ways. The majority has now settled as good cultivators, while others follow different occupations. In Nimar, in spite of their being classed as criminals for educational purposes, "large number of them are highly respectable cultivators."[1] They worship several deities, prominent of which is Banjari Devi.

Marathas

The Marathas, mostly found in the District, are cultivators and labourers. They form endogamous group of their own and are socially different from the Maratha Kunbis of the District. They claim origin from, and several of them have the name of, Rajput clans.

Occupational Castes

Malis are known for their agricultural skill. They are flower and vegetable gardeners They have also developed several endogamous groups among themselves. Telis form another occupational caste having oil-pressing by indigenous method as their occupation. Number of divisions and sub-divisions exist among them and, they are endogamous in character. Kumhars are a class of potters having a few sub-castes The caste of Sunars or gold-smiths too is an old caste of the District. They once earned a good repute for their skill in wire-drawing and making gold and silver ornaments. These too have their own endogamous groups. Gaolis, or Ahirs, as the name indicate, form an occupational caste of cowherds, milkmen and cattle breeders. They are sub-divided into endogamous classes.

Scheduled Castes

According to the Census of 1961, the population of scheduled castes was 61,226 against 59,287 in 1951. This constituted about 9 per cent of the total population of the District against the State percentage of 13.1. The low proportion is ascribed mainly to Burhanpur Tahsil which has only 2 per cent of its population in Scheduled Castes. Amongst the tahsils, Khandwa has 13.5 per cent and Harsud 10 6 per cent of the population according to 1961 Census. Scheduled Castes are concentrated in the rural areas of the District to the extent of 88 4 per cent.

1. Census of India 1931, C. P. & Berar, pt. I, p. 366

Of the 12 Scheduled Castes or synonymous caste-groups returned in 1961, Balahi or Balai, Chamar, Mehtar, Kori, Mang, Katia or Patharia, Mahar and Basor are numerically significant. The castes have their own endogamous sub-divisions. Mahars are mostly menial labourers and village watchmen. Many of them embraced Buddhism in 1957. They are now treated equally at all public places. Many are engaged in basket-making industry. The most numerous Scheduled Caste is Balahi, constituting more than two-third (68.7 per cent) of the Scheduled Caste population, concentrated mostly in rural areas of Khandwa and Harsud Tahsils. Chamar forming 17.6 per cent of all Scheduled Castes is the next important group.

Sex-ratio in Scheduled Castes is 957, compared with 939 for the general population. About 10.5 per cent of these are literates, as against 24.53 per cent for the District population as a whole, and 7.9 per cent literacy of the Scheduled Castes population in the State. About 42.7 per cent of the "workers" in Scheduled Castes population were "cultivators", 37.8 per cent, "agricultural labourers", 7.9 per cent in "household industry" and 7.5 per cent in "other services."

Scheduled Tribes

Nimar formed the junction point of the aboriginal tribes of eastern and western India, noted Forsyth in 1868.[1] He recorded the presence of seven aboriginal tribes of whom the District had the representatives.[2]

Prominent among them were Bhil, Bhilala, Korku and Gond. They are engaged in cultivation and work as field labourers also, during the greater part of the year. Their population in the Scheduled Area of the District as ascertained at the Census of 1961 was 54,043, all of whom were in Harsud Tahsil, which is a rural tract. Of the nine tribes Scheduled in the District, Gond Korku. Nihal, were numerically significant. Others were, Bharia-Bhumia, etc., (6), Bhil (359), Bhunjia (10), Oraon etc., (3), Pradhan (35), Pardhi (28).

Korkus

Korkus in 1961 numbered 42,377 in the District (rural), accounting for 78 per cent of all Scheduled Tribes in the District. Economically, they are almost entirely dependent on agriculture, with 98 per cent of the "workers" from the tribe being engaged as "cultivators" and "agricultural labourers".

Korku is the mother-tongue of 10.5 per cent of the population. In Harsud and Burhanpur. Korku forms the second most widely spoken dialect in the rural areas. Only 3 per cent of the Scheduled Korkus can claim to be literate and educated.

Among the Korkus, there are four territorial sub-castes of which Ruma sub-caste is found in majority in the District. All Korkus, except 56 who were

1 Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p 14.
2 Ibid, p 245

Christians, consider themselves as Hindus. They worship the Sun, the Moon and Mahadeva also. Besides, they worship important village deities like Dongar Deo (the god of the hills), Mutua Deo, represented by heap of stones within the village and Mata or goodess of smallpox. They have their own priests, chief among whom are the Bhumkas, who perform regular sacrifices to the village gods. Office of these Bhumkas is hereditary. The Korkus like all other primitive people pin their faith in the efficacy of magic. The Korkus are mostly very poor and like most hill tribes are remarkably honest and truthful. Formerly, they lived principally by hunting and shifting cultivation in the forests. Now they have taken to more settled habits and some of them possess land.

Gonds

A small section of the Gond population inhabits the District since ages. Their religious practices present much variety. The worship of ancestors has been an integral part of their religion. Bara Deo is their great and most revered god. A number of Hindu gods have also now been admitted into the Gond pantheon. Besides, they have their own tribal gods and also worship a few village gods.

According to 1961 Census. Gonds are an important Scheduled Tribe in the District, and form 17 per cent of the total Scheduled Tribes population. They are also mainly dependent on agriculture, having 93 per cent of their working force in agriculture. About six per cent of the "workers" were engaged in Category III (presumably in forestry). Educationally, they are only slightly better than the Korkus, having 4 1 per cent literate and educated in their population.

Nihal

Forming four per cent of the Scheduled Tribes population in the District in 1961, the Nihal "workers" depend to the extent of 93 per cent on agriculture, mostly (74 per cent of their working force) agricultural labourers.

Nahals are suggested to be the same as Nihal, and is a mixture of Korkus and Bhils.[1] In Mahakoshal districts , Nihals or Nahals have been shown to be a synonymous group of the Korkus, while Nihal is also shown as an independent tribe. The following note about Nahals is reproduced from 1961 Census,[2] which shows their position in 1891.

"The Nahals, 8,766 are returned principally from Hoshangabad, 3,383 and Nimar 3,502. They are now for most part village drudges and have almost ceased to exist as a separate tribe. They mix much with the Korkus, talking their language in the more hilly parts, but are considered inferior to the latter in the social scale."

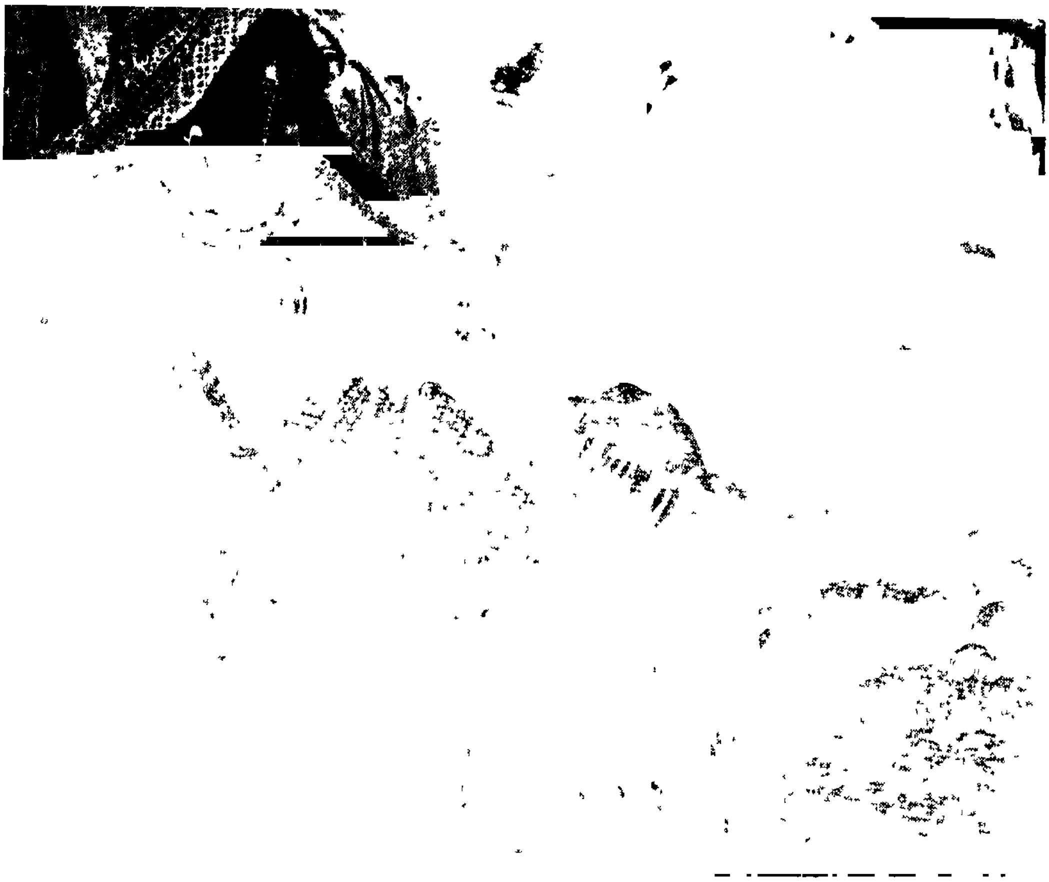
Bhils

Abul Fazl in his account of the District stated that the original inhabitants of the District were Bhils, Kunbis, and Gonds.[3] Crooke says of them: "According

1. Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 76.
2. East Nimar District Census Hand Book, 1961, p. Liv.
3. Nimar Settlement Report, 1968-69, p 30.



A Bhil Woman wearing traditional dress and ornaments



A Bhil Woman in Weekly Market



A Bhil Musician

to local tradition the Bhils were once the ruling race in Rajputana, Central India and Gujarat, and it is believed that like Kolis were reduced to subjection by the Rajput Chiefs".[1] During the early part of the 1st Century, the Bhils took to robberies and plundering but were later suppressed. Now they have settled as peaceful citizens. The Bhils are an important section of the tribal stock in the District and rank fourth in numerical strength. During the period of Mohammadan rule some of them embraced Islam, and were known as Tadvis, who later on returned to the fold of their own Hindu stock. They worship the Hindu gods and follow the customs of the local populace. More favourite deity is Khande Rao or Khandoba, the War-God of Marathas. A few in the remote hilly tracts still follow tribal religion. The economic status of Bhils is still very low and has not shown any sign of improvement. Their chief septs are Jamania, Rohini, and Avalia. Traditionally, marrying in ones own sept is prohibited. Marriage between first cousins is also not permitted.

SOCIAL LIFE

Since ages till the recent past the majority of people of this District had been under the influence of joint family system. The joint family in the olden times had been the lowest unit of the society and it was headed by the *karta*. All movable and immovable property were held by the joint family. Naturally, the share of an individual was liable to be influenced by an increase or decrease in the number of its members. Matriarchal system was probably absent. The main system of inheritance followed in the District was one that was prescribed by the Mitakshara School. Accordingly, a male member had a right in joint family property by birth and as stated above his share used to increase or decrease by being a joint tenant. The Mitakshara prescribed that the devoluation of property was by survivorship and also by succession. Among the Hindus, the widow had no share. As regards the Jains, widow enjoyed share in the property. The Mitakshara system recognised three classes of heirs viz , *gotraja sapindas, samanodakas* and *bandhus*. By the passing of the Hindu Women's Right to property Act (No. XVIII of 1937, and amended by Act XI of 1938), Hindu widow too, is given the right to the same share of property as that to a son.

Though a member was incompetent to transfer his undivided share in the joint Hindu family property by gift or will, yet a *karta* was entitled to make a gift of a reasonable portion of the joint Hindu family property. Since the passing of the Hindu Succession Act 1956 (Act XXX of 1956), any male member of the family can now make a will of his undivided share in the joint Hindu family property But evidence is lacking to conclude that there are any large number of transfers of property through wills The people are still under the joint family rule. Indications are there to suggest that the glamour of joint Hindu family is on the decline. The system which worked well in the past has been showing some signs of disintegration. The rapid growth of means of communications and transport, trade, industries and other activities in the Country have attracted the

1. Nimar District Gazetteer, (quoted) p. 76.

members of joint families in many directions. It may, however, be observed that the process of disitegration is not quicker and stronger in this District than elsewhere. In the case of Muslims in matters of property and inheritance, Islamic Law is followed. The property of the deceased is inherited, both by the sons and the daughters though the shares of the latter remain comparatively, less.

Marriage and Morals

Monogamy.—Since ages, marriage has been looked upon by all the castes in the District as an essential thing in mundane life. But the variety of castes and sub-castes has developed distinctive marriage customs, rituals and restrictions on marriage alliances of their own. Polyandry has been absent in the District. As regards polygamy, formerly, it was practised in some low caste people and the tribes. In all other castes it was normally not practised. But now the law has forbidden it. The Muslims are, however, not governed by that law. They can marry as many as four females, but in practice polygamy is not common. Barring exceptions, monogamy has become the rule of the day, and it is practised by all castes and sub-castes in the District.

Settlement of Marriage

When the children come of age, their guardians start looking for a suitable match. Formerly, child marriage was a general rule, but now the stress of modern living rather than the law prohibiting child marriage, has made it an exception in an educated society. Still in some of the castes it is in vogue. Contacts are developed with suitable parties and horoscopes of the boy and the girl are examined with the help of Pundit. Having agreed and approved the match, in higher castes, betrothal or *sagai* is made which marks the settlement of marriage. Bhil parents exchange the cups of wine and turban which seals the marriage.[1] The minimum marital age in the case of boys and girls, is 18 and 15 respectively. The marriage ceremony starts and ends in the manner directed by a priest, usually a Brahman. The rites and rituals are performed by the caste people as a matter of form. The whole of the ceremony is looked upon as a religious sacrament. *Saptapadi* is the most important of all the marriage rites. It may be observed that dowry system is still prevalent in some or the other form. Among the upper castes the cash settlement forms an important feature, more so, in the urban society. It has also started assuming scandalous proportions,[2] depending upon the merits of the boy.

In the case of a Muslim marriage, called *nikah*, formalities like tallying of the horoscope and performance of elaborate rites and rituals are not in vogue. The ceremony is simple and short. The betrothal or *magni* is the settlement of the match, followed by *nikah*. The Kazi, or the high priest, obtains the consent of the couple and the ceremony is over. The consideration for the contract is called *mehr* (alimony,) which is paid by the bridgroom to the wife on demand. Christian marriage is performed in their church in a brief, simple manner.

1. T. B. Naik, the Bhils, p. 131.
2. K M Kapadia, Marriage and Family, p. 120.

Marriage in Backward Classes

Progressive adoption of Hinduism and growing contacts with the civilised population have greatly influenced the tribal people of the District. They have adopted some of the social observances of the Hindus and abandoned some of their own old customs. It is generally observed that they marry late even though *sagai* has been performed in the childhood. Among them girls are looked upon as a great asset in their field work. The marriage negotiations are opened by the parents of the spouse. *Sagai* and the marriage day is fixed in consultation with the head of their caste in the village. The tribal people have preserved very few of their special marriage rituals. Very poor Korku boy may agree to become *lamjhana*, son-in-law, of a Korku whose daughter is selected by him as his match. A *lamjhana*, son-in-law has to work under the control of his prospective father-in-law before the marriage takes place. Among Banjaras too, marriages are settled through the caste panchayat of the village. In these backward classes the bride price is fixed in advance of marriage.

It may, however, be observed that in all the castes and sub-castes, except Christians, the ceremony of annointing the bride and bridegroom with turmeric pulp, before a day or two of marriage is noticeably common. On the day of marriage the bridegroom is carried on a horses' back, or in a motor car, in a procession to bride's house. At the appointed time the bride and the bridegroom, except among Muslims, are seated side by side and the priest starts the marriage rites. While the priest chants hymns, etc , the parents of the daughter put her hand into that of the bridegroom Among the advanced castes, then begins the ritual called *homa* Oblations are made alternately by the bridal pair to the fire as per directions of the priest who remains busy in chanting hymns and *mantras*. When the *homa* is over, the bridal pair circumambulate the fire seven times and this is called *saptapadi*. In the presence of holy fire, both take vows of faithfulness, righteousness, honesty, loyalty, etc., through out their lives. Among the Korkus, Bhumka, the caste priest, performs simple ritual of tying yellow thread around the couple seven times. The bridegroom lifts the bride in his arms and takes a round or two of the place where they were seated facing each other. Thereafter, sweets are distributed to the guests present and both the parties exchange gifts. In the last, the bridal pair is taken out in a procession. The other features commonly observed at the time of marriage ceremony are feasting of the caste people and gay abandon in the form of dance and music with the accompaniment of drums and cymbals.

Restrictions on Marriage Alliances

Caste as a segmentary division of the society is largely endogamous in the character, and traditionally marriage alliance within the confines of the endogamous caste still remains an ideal in the District. The restrictions are sometimes slackened, and the marriage between persons belonging to two sub-castes are performed. But intercaste marriages are still strictly prohibited. In respect of *gotra*, probably all are unanimous in strictly following the restriction that no marriage alliance

should take place within the *gotra*. Among Brahmans and Banias, generally the boy is not allowed to marry a girl belonging to the *gotra* of his mother or maternal uncle. The same restrictions are observed by the Bhils who also avoid marriage alliance with Tadvis. Among the Gonds marriage between the families worshipping the same number of gods or claiming to be *bhaibands* are disallowed. However, among them union of brother's son to sister's daughter has been customary. Exchange of girls in marriage between two families is prohibited among the Brahmans, Banias, Bhils, Gaolis or Ahirs. The last two classes and also Chamars and Telis, disallow marriage of the first cousins. On the other hand, the Gonds consider the union of first cousins as the most suitable one, while among Nahals such marriages are permitted. Marriage with maternal uncle's daughter is favoured among the Kunbis, Marathas and Mahars. The Mahars permit taking wife from mother's or grand-mother's side. Besides, there are many other unimportant restrictions also being observed by different castes and sub-castes. It may broadly be observed that with the changing times, many of the above restrictions have lost their traditional strictness.

Registered Marriages

The Government of India's Special Marriage Act was first passed in 1872. It was substituted by the Special Marriage Act, 1954 (43 of 1954). Further the State Government made rules relating to the registration of Hindu Marriages in 1956.[1] Under these rules civil marriages are registered by the Registrar, usually Collector of a district, who certifies the marriage under his seal and signature. In recent times very few such marriages took place in this District. The number of such marriages ranges from 1 to 6 in a year.

Divorce and Widow Marriage

Divorce and widow marriages are not favoured among the Brahmans, Banias, Rajputs and rich families of the Kunbis and Marathas also. However, a few educated Brahmans and Rajputs now do not object to widow remarrying. In most of the other castes like Gujar, Bhil, Ahir, Gond, Korku, Kumhar, Kunbi, Maratha, Mali, Bhilala, divorce and widow marriages, locally called *pat*, are permissible. Muslims also allow divorce and widow marriage. Generally among the Banjaras, Korkus and Gonds, brother of the deceased keeps or marries the widow of his brother. Among the Korkus if brothers do not want to keep her, they send her to her father, and then she can marry any one. Among the Korkus, divorce is effected by a simple declaration of the fact before a caste assembly or the panchas.

Economic Dependence of Women and their place in Society

The question of economic dependence of women can best be studied with the help of data collected for the livelihood classes and sub-classes in the Census of 1951. The Table below gives total agricultural and non-

1. Gazette notification No. 192-2173, XVII-B, dated 30th July, 1956.

agricultural female population in the District, in its rural and urban areas, together with their economic status.

Economic Status	Female population		
	Rural	Urban	Total
All Agricultural Classes	1,67,673	4,972	1,72,645
Self-Supporting	9,897	455	10,352
Non-Earning Dependents	97,877	4,127	1,02,004
Earning Dependendents	59,899	390	60,289
All Non-Agricultural Classes	28,852	53,237	82,089
Self-Supporting	1,202	2,669	3,871
Non-Earning Dependents	19,643	48,879	68,522
Earning Dependents	8,007	1,689	9,696

The above Table shows that though the economic dependence of females is still considerable, yet economically active females are more in agricultural, rather than in non-agricultural occupation. Agriculture being greatly confined to rural areas, economically active females are more in rural rather than in urban areas.

According to 1961 Census, total "workers" in all categories of economic activity, numbered 3,49,139. Of these 1,42,418 or 40.8 per cent were females. Divided in rural and urban areas, it may be seen that as large a number as 1,34,476 or 94.4 per cent of the total female "workers" were found in rural areas and 7,942 or 5.6 per cent in urban areas.

Drinking and Gambling

During mid 'nineteenth Century, it was observed that the first love of aboriginals in the District had been drinking. The evil existed in the District all through these years till the State Government with the intention of bringing about a change in social and economic life of the people in general, and poorer sections in particular, extended the Central Provinces and Berar Prohibition Act, 1938 (VII of 1938) in 1946 in this District too. Though the District has since been declared dry and the state of drunkeness an offence, public opinion at large considers that the evil still thrives in the District. Illicit distillation is said to be rampant and forms the means of livelihood for many It has also been gathered that the addicts, residing near the wet areas of the bordering districts, often visit these areas in order to quench their thirst. The same is the case with gamblers. Though gambling is strictly prohibited, number of cases violating the provisions of the Gambling Act occurs in the District freely.

HOME LIFE

Dwelling

According to the 1961 Census, there were 1,32.486 occupied residential houses in the District of which 1 05,767 were in the rural areas and the rest of 26,719 in urban tracts. The former contained nearly 77.47 per cent and the latter

22.53 per cent of the District population. On an average there were 5.17 persons per household.

With the changing times and conditions, the types of dwellings of people in respect of plan and material used therein have undergone considerable changes. In old days rich people used to build houses of bricks or stones, using mortar. Still extant in urban localities of the District there are constructions, which mostly have more than one storey. Wood was then freely used in upper stories. But now cement concrete is commonly used by the well-to-do people because of the durability it lends to the building. Besides, in urban areas other dwellings belonging to the middle class people are also constructed of bricks, and are covered with corrugated sheets or indigenous tiles. Poor people build their houses according to their means, using the material locally available. These houses are mostly single-storeyed. They have partition walls either of bricks, tin or mud. The houses of rich and middle class people contain latrines and separate drawing and bed-rooms, together with kitchen and store-room. Poor people generally use common municipal latrines or go to the solitary area on the outskirts of the town for this purpose. In rural areas very few houses are constructed of bricks. They are generally single storeyed and contain more than two or three rooms. The poor cultivators construct their houses by erecting walls of mud. The huts or houses are covered with thatched roof or indigenous tiles. The houses in rural areas are generally built round three sides of a central space, usually called the *chowk*. There is generally a separate shed for cattle and agricultural implements. An average cultivator is satisfied with two huts, one for himself and the other for his cattle. The material used for the construction of rural houses varies from locality to locality and also with the means of an individual. The houses in forest-abounding villages, with poor soil, are often little more than sheds. The walls are made of bamboos strung together like a basket and plastered with mud. They are covered with thatched roofs. Such sheds are more common in the localities inhabited by the tribal people.

Furniture and Decoration

Furniture varies with the economic status of a person and his social standing. In an average village household there is practically total absence of furniture. The poorer section of the population often possess a *khatia* (indigenous cot), strung with *rassi*. It is used both for sleeping and sitting purposes. The middle class people who have come into contact with urban areas have a table and a chair or a low wooden stool. The upper strata of the rural population have a few luxuries in respect of furniture, which consists in sofa, almirah, high class table, stool, easy chair, etc. People in general decorate their houses when there is a festival like Diwali, Dussehra, etc. The Maharashtrians residing in the District, decorate their threshold every day early in the morning when they draw *rangolis* on the floors after sprinkling water and plastering it with cow-dung. The rich people decorate their drawing-rooms with artistic pieces and flower vases.

Dress and Ornaments

The young male population generally wear *dhoti*, shirt or *kurta* and cap. The Nimari *pagri* which has been a famous head gear in the past is still worn by the elderly people of the trading and agricultural classes. The younger generation instead wear cap. Educated people prefer *pyjama* or trousers to *dhoti*, and shirt or bush-shirt to *kurta*. Coats are worn in winters. Boots and shoes are more popular than *chappals*.

The women-folk of the District wear different types of garments in different manners. *Lahenga*, petticoat and sari are popular lower garments worn by the ladies. The upper garments are blouse and *ornhi*. The girls in the tender age wear frocks while the boys wear shorts. The old Maharashtrian ladies wear *patala or lugadu* of nine yards in an elegant style. The dress of the Banjara females is rather picturesque. Their costume consists of a peculiarly embroidered *ghagra* having a large girth and requiring about seven to eight yards of coloured cloth. A short printed cloth is drawn over the head and shoulder. The upper garment worn by the lower sections is a peculiar type of *choli* known as *kachli*, an open-back blouse fastened in the back But now gradually *polka*, and *choli* have replaced it to some extent.

Ornaments

A variety of ornaments are worn by the females in the District. In the lower strata of village population, ornaments made of bell metal, black-beads, lac, etc., are worn. Those who can afford wear silver and gold ornaments also. However, the agricultural class mostly prefer silver ornaments. Thus the Gujar and Kunbi women wear *bali* in upper part of the ear while *toli* and *jhumka* adorn the helix region. On the head they wear *bhanwar*. All these are either of gold or silver. The nose is adorned with golden *nath* studded with pearls. On the neck they put on *tagli*, *khajuri*, *sar*, *putali-har*, *bajath* (last two of gold). Hands are decorated with *bahutia* or *bakad-bela*, *kada*, *dal*, *karondi*, *banda*, *pitwan*, *toda*, *gajare-ka-toda*, *baluiya*. On the waist there is *katdora*, *motia*, *and pai-jheb* or *kami toda*, *kodi*, and *newari* adorn the feet, while the toes are adorned with *bichori* or *bela*. The Banjara women wear *jhela*, *tapali ghugri*, *haida* on the head The ears are adorned with *toti*, *jhumka* and *dur-bali*. Ornaments of the neck are *dhagdhagi*, *tagla*, *alli*, *kata dewri*, while the arms are adorned by *ded kadi*, *bahutiyu*, *pachhela*, *kangni*, *banda*' *hath-fula*, ring (*mundri*). Formerly, some of the ornaments of feet, viz., *pagadi*, *kolda* used to be of brass. Now *kami*, *kadi*, *newri*, *anwala* and *toda* are of silver. The Korku women wear *jhela*, *todi*, *jhumka* on their head and *dur-bali* in ears, *tagli* and *sar* are put on the neck. *Dedkadi*, *dala pola-kada* are the ornaments of hand On feet they wear *poti-kadi*, *machli*, toe-rings of bell-metal, *galsani*, black-bead strings are worn in the neck region, and *kuku* are the mark of a Bhil married woman. Widows and unmarried girls are not allowed to use them. The married Banjara women place upright a small wooden stick, about 6" to 12", on the top of the head, tucked up in the hairs and is covered with the head-cloth. Their forearms are mostly adorned by peculiar bangles of lac. The Banjara woman is

still conspicuously recognised by peculiar dress and ornaments. The male Banjara is recognised by his style of long hairs and *pagari*.

Food

Jowar has been the staple food of all the classes, except those who have migrated to this land from wheat growing areas and are well-to-do. Its flour is made into unleavened cakes and eaten with pulses like that of arhar or mung which forms the average meal of the people. In urban areas and among the well-to-do people wheat is used in place of jowar. Rice does not form a part of the daily meals and is taken only on ceremonial occassions. Vegetables are eaten largely in urban areas, Commonly used cooking oil is that of groundnut. However, ghee and butter are also used by the people. Seasonal fruits like mangoes, bananas, etc., are eaten by all classes of people. They are abundantly available and are grown in the District. Castes like Rajputs, Korkus, Banjaras, Gonds, Kunbis, etc., are non-vegetarian. Sweets are an occasional dish, purchased or prepared on festive occasions like Diwali, Dussehra. All sorts of sweets are available in the market through out the year.

Amusements and Festivals

The most popular form of amusement in the urban areas is cinema, which draws large number of people, from rural areas as well. Among the rural folk, gossips. story-telling, collective singing on festive occasion etc., are common. Occasional exhibitions, cultural programmes arranged by different development departments, besides documentaries of the field units, are also enjoyed.

The all India festivals, viz., Diwali, Dussehra, Janamashtami, Holi, Gangaur, etc., are enthusiastically celebrated by the majority of the people in the District. On the occasion of Diwali, people illuminate their buildings according to their means. Dussehra festival is celebrated in a notable manner at Khandwa and Burhanpur. People in thousands assemble at a common meeting place and greet each other. The Muslims of the District like their co-religionists in other parts of the Country celebrate Id and Muharram very enthusiastically. Christmas is celebrated by the Christian population, while the day of Indian Independence and the Republic Day are celebrated by all irrespective of caste or creed, specially in urban areas. *Prabhat pheris* are arranged and meetings are held in various parts of the towns and tricolour Indian National Flags are hoisted at public places and on Government buildings.

Communal Life—Pilgrim Centres and *Jatras*

Mandhata is a famous pilgrim centre in the District. Throughout the year a number of pilgrims from distant parts of the Country visit the place. Twice in a year a fair is held at this place, which is attended by a number of pilgrims. The fair held in the month of Kartika in the fortnight of the waxing moon is of considerable importance and is attended by thousands of devotees. The fair commences from Kartik-*sudi* the 11th and lasts for seven days. About 2,00,000 people

assemble at the place and worship Shiva. Since long it has been a religious and commercial fair of great importance. Other fairs or *jatras* of importance are those which are held at Pipaliya, Burhanpur, and Malgaon. Singaji fair at Pipaliya is attended by thousands of Gaolis of this and other neighbouring Districts, too, in the month of Ashvina. Singaji, a saintly person of Gaoli caste who died some 400 years ago[1] is worshipped. The fair is religious and also commercial in nature. Cattle in large numbers are brought and sold. In the month of Asvina a fair is held in honour of the deity named Balaji (a form of Vishnu), near Satyarajghat, at Burhanpur. The fair is of local importance, and lasts for about 15 days. About 10,000 people of the town and of neighbourhood, attend the same. At Malgaon in Harsud Tahsil, a fair is held in Magha in honour of a saint named "Data Sahib". It is about 25 miles from Khandwa. For the last about 45 years the fair is being organised, lasting for about a week. About 25,000 people attend the same. A cattle fair is also arranged at the same place. Another important fair is also held in the month of Magha, in memory of Gandhiji, the 'Father of the Nation', on the banks of the river Tapti at Burhanpur. It is attended by about 4,000 people. Besides these, a number of other fairs of local importance are also held at various places in the District A detailed list of the same appears in Appendix-B.

The important Muslim fairs are Shabvali Urs at Burhanpur, Khwaja Chalni Shah Chishti Urs at Rahipur, attended by one to two thousand of local population

Communal Dances

The rich heritage of communal dances is still preserved by the Rajputs, Gujars, Korkus, Nagar Brahmans and Banjaras. The dances of the Rajput male are known as *gair* and *kimadi* while of their female folk is called *khada*. They dance on festive occasions with the accompaniment of *Mewadi* folk-songs. Among the Guajrs, the male-folk, perform *dip* dance. The favourite dances of Korku males and females are respectively, called *susur* and *gadolia*. They are performed on the occasion of festivals. The women-folk of the Gujarati community perform *garba* while worshipping goddess Gauri. The dance is exclusively meant for females and males are not allowed to see it. The Banjaras too have separate dances which are performed at the occasion of Holi etc. It may be made clear that perhaps no caste of the District has any dance to be performed jointly by males and females.

Fuchs in the 'forties of this Century noted that Bhils have "no special games, songs, tales, dances and tribal laws which play any important role in their life."[2] There is no dance peculiar to East Nimar. However, a variety of Nimari folk-songs are popular in the District. Gangaur and Holi festival are occasions when dances with the accompaniment of music are enjoyed. Besides, in recent years Ramayan Mandalis and Kalapathakas have been organised at many places. They arrange programmes of devotional songs, Ramayan *path* and stage dramas and Ramalila.

1. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868 69, p. 225
2. W V. Grigson, op, cit., p 407

Public Games

Public games played in the District are mostly common with other parts of the Country. It may be observed that most of the public games are seasonal. Kite-flying is the most popular while *gilli-danda* is also widely played. The youngsters play marbles, topballs, etc. Hide-and-seek game is also commonly played. *Kabaddi* is played by young people of the District.

Recreation Clubs and Associations

The clubs and recreational centres provide an entertainment value to the drab existence of life in the urban areas while in rural areas they have got their educative value too, apart from providing recreation. East Nimar District Olympic Association affiliated to Madhya Pradesh Olympic Association, was established in 1947. Later, affiliated branches of the same were also opened in all the tahsils of the District. The Association aims at furthering interest in games and sports. Since its establishment it is conducting divisional tournaments. The other important clubs are Model Club Burhanpur (1902), the Union Club, Khandwa (1901) and the Nimar Cricket Gymkhana Club, Khandwa (1904). Shri Pandharinath Akhada, Burhanpur, (1900) is also an important centre of physical culture.

Effects of Abolition of *Malguzari*

Besides *ryotwari* tenure, *malguzari* was also existing in the District, prior to 1950. Landlords in the *malguzari* villages acted as intermediaries between the tenants and the Government. In order to achieve rapid growth of agriculture, and to put an end to the social evils connected with the system, the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights (Estates, Mahals, Alienated Lands) Act was passed in 1950. Thus, the *malguzari* system came to an end and the tenants were brought into direct relationship with the Government. This created the requisite psychological urge for the improvement and stability in tenure. This measure has also stopped exploitation of tenant class and has improved their social life too.

CHAPTER IV

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

East Nimar District broadly comprises the tracts of only medium soils, receiving comparatively light rainfall. It has been traditionally known for its breed of bullocks most essential for agriculture and for its skilful and industrious cultivators to whom it owes its prosperity. Population of the District has been predominantly agricultural. At the Census of 1961, 69 per cent of the total population was dependent on agricultural occupations. The figure of only actual "workers" in the field of agriculture either as cultivators or as agricultural labourers as ascertained at the Census of 1961 gives percentage of about 40 to total population of the District. Dependants on these actual agricultural "workers" when added to them would certainly swell the percentage of population fully dependent on agriculture.

Agricultural Communities

Rajputs, Gujars and Kunbis make the best agriculturists and occupy the developed tracts of the District. Rajputs and Gujars live mostly in Khandwa Tahsil while Kunbis are principally concentrated in Burhanpur Tahsil. Korkus live mostly in forest tracts and form majority of inhabitants of forest villages. Korkus are mainly found in Harsud Tahsil.

LAND RECLAMATION AND UTILISATION

The total geographical area of the District was 26,42,126 acres according to village papers, inclusive of 10,63,763 acres of Government Reserved forests in 1962-63. Other forests covered 77,426 acres. Land to the extent of 1,50,345 acres was not available for cultivation, being barren and unculturable or put to non-agricultural uses. Culturable waste land amounted to only 13,790 acres. Permanent pastures and grazing lands took a big chunk of land viz., 2,85,653 acres. Miscellaneous tree crops and groves were grown on 17,675 acres. Fallow lands comprising current fallows and old fallows totalled 37,635 acres. Residual area was the net area sown, the most important and the biggest land-use and accounted for 9,95,839 acres. Double-cropped area was 34,473 acres; thus total cropped area aggregated 10,30,312 acres.

Land utilization statistics of the District from 1909-10 to 1962-63 appear as Appendix- A. The Land Records figures show that there is not much of cultivable waste land in the District. At the time of the last Settlement (1911-14)

the area with possibility of extension of cultivation was 2,73,043 acres consisting of area under big tree forests, shrub jungle, grass and groves both in *malguzari* and *ryotwari* villages.[1] Since then a large portion of cultivable waste has been brought under plough with the result that the area available for extension of cultivation in the District at present is very limited. In 1953-54 cultivable waste lands aggregated 77.7 thousand acres. There has been a rapid decline in such area in subsequent years. The cultivable waste of the District is scattered in small blocks of land. In 1961, the Waste Land Survey and Reclamation Committee could not locate any block of more than 250 acres. The distribution of blocks of waste-land by size and number in the year 1958-59 was as follows.—

Size	Block (No.)	Area (Acres)
Below 15 acres	9,546	26,000
15-30 acres	316	6,273
30-50 acres	62	2,312
50-100 acres	21	1,288
Above 100 acres	6	732
Total	9,951	36,605

In 1962-63, of the total cultivable waste of 13,790 acres, 4,456 acres could be brought under cultivation immediately, 5,993 could be brought under cultivation after some improvement and 3,341 acres were not reclamable for cultivation at a reasonable cost and consisted of uneconomic small patches of land.

Emphasis on increased production of food, fibre and fodder outlined the necessity of bringing additional land under tillage by reclamation of culturable waste lands.

At the time of Forsyth's settlement *malik-makbuzas* were awarded the right to break waste and add it to their holdings. A well designed scheme for forming villages in culturable waste and settling them on *ryotwari* principles took shape long ago in 1888. Not only Harsud Tahsil (formed in 1896) but a number of villages situated in it are of comparatively recent origin. The major portion of the Tahsil was covered with jungles and the problem of devising the best method of opening it was constantly before the administration. The system of clearance leases adopted initially was abandoned in favour of *ryotwari* system. The early years of the present century witnessed the complete alteration of conditions in Burhanpur Tahsil. The waste but fertile Tapti valley--which was laid waste by pillage and famine in the early part of the 19th Century for a hundred years remained as described by Capt. Forsyth, "a rank and malarious wilderness inhabited only by bison and tiger and a few almost as wild Korku aborigines"—was thrown open to *ryotwari* colonization through various inducements, so that the tract soon lost all its terrors and stream of immigrants in search of fortune poured in.[2]

1. Nimar Settlement Report, 1911-14, p. 18.
2. Ibid, Chief Commissioner's Review, p. 2.

Considerable additions were made to cultivated area mainly by excisions from Government forests for *ryotwari* settlements, the backward Harsud Tahsil registering greatest progress in this respect. The outlying portion of the Khandwa Tahsil developed rapidly under the incentive of high prices of cotton. Burhanpur Tahsil did not offer much scope for extension.[1] At the time of last Settlement 3,39,064 acres of such cultivable waste land was settle under *ryotwari* system. Bu 1950-51, i e., at the time of the abolition of proprietary rights, the area of the culturable waste settled under the system rose to 3,95,134 acres. Thus, since the last Settlement 56,070 acres of culturable waste was settled under this system. Cultivable waste land in ex-*malguzari* villages was settled by Compensation-cum-Nistar Officers and during the subsequent period through *nistar* operations. Besides this, cultivable lands in the Reserved forest areas were settled as forest villages under Forest Department

A scheme for the settlement of landless persons was launched in old Madhya Pradesh in the beginning of the Second Five Year Plan. The work was executed by Collectors under the direct administrative orders of the Revenue Department. The progress was slow and halting till it was placed under the charge of the Directorate of Land Records in October 1957. Since cultivable waste lands in very large blocks are not available due to already extensive cultivation, the operations have been confined to allotment of land to landless persons on individual basis. During the three years 1956-57 to 1958-59 10,789 acres of culturable waste land was allotted on individual basis. Besides, in the years 1959 and 1960, 201 acres of waste land was colonised by settling 15 families in the villages of Udaipur and Bahanda.

IRRIGATION

Nimar was once a rich and flourishing Province under the rulers of Mandu and Delhi, who caused to be constructed numerous tanks, weirs and wells to ensure the revenue and enhance the glory and prosperity of the region. These works constituted "the grand works constructed by the native rulers." This favourable description held good perhaps up to the year 1700. Remains of those useful constructions were there, when this region was taken by the British in 1823-24, from Sindhia for management. But during the period of 20 years of mal-administration, as Captain P. T. French, Political Assistant in Nimar, put in his report, No. 197 of 1846, dated the 7th August, 1846, to R. N. C. Hamilton Resident at Indore, "In a word, we reaped without sowing, and in exacting the rights of property, we forgot its duties, no one act leading to a conviction of the permanency of our stay. The tanks, wells, bowlies and serais erected by former rulers, we left in the dilapidated state, we found them until the action of time nearly effected their very remains, and the great remissions of revenue so frequently made, led us not to consider the wisdom of native rulers, which caused those works for the insurance of revenue, the welfare of subject, and encouragement of trade and industry "[2]

1 Ibid, p. 17.

2. Report on the Province of Nimar, p. 62.

The facilities for irrigation are little developed in the District even today. During the period of Captain J. Forsyth's 20 Years' Settlement the total area under irrigation from all the sources available in the District was only 8,411 acres. The Settlement Officer had remarked that there was a considerable increase on the breadth irrigated previous to the commencement of good administration in 1846.[1] At the Settlement of 1895-99 the irrigated area increased to 10,959 acres or 2 per cent of the cultivated area. By the time of the last Settlement, i e., in 1912-13, the irrigated area decreased to 6,295 acres or only 1 per cent of the then cultivated area. This fall in irrigated area was due to the decade of light rainfall which preceded the year of Settlement and to the popularity of the cotton crop.[2] Since those days, though the area under irrigation has doubled but in relation to the cultivated area, the position is not encouraging. In the year 1962-63 the area under irrigation was 24.2 thousand acres out of the total cropped area of 10,30,312 acres which works out to 2.3 per cent.

As will be clear from the statistics given in Appendix—A, irrigation has not been much in vogue. Irrigation showed little development from 1868-69 to 1941-42. From the year 1954-55 and onwards irrigated area has been above 20 thousand acres. This definite upward trend can be attributed to the stimulus given by the administration under the development programme but whatever progress has been made is tardy.

Irrigation may be had in any of the four ways, by rivers, tanks, channels and wells. In the District it is usually by wells and occasionally by channels.

River Irrigation

The irrigation potentialities of the rivers and their tributaries are little explored and at present there is practically no irrigation from the rivers. There are no private canals in the District. Presently, 11 Government canals with a length of 3 miles are providing some irrigation.

Tank Irrigation

The physical and rainfall conditions obtaining in the District do not allow the development of tank irrigation on account of the porosity of the sub-soil and the unsoundness of the underlying rocks. The large variations between the average and minimum monsoon rainfall (the latter being only a little more than a fourth of the former) would make tank projects expensive, as their storage would be excessive as compared with the yields from their catchments to enable them to last through drought. In the scarcity years of 1864 many old tanks were renovated and repaired as relief measures but owing presumably to faults in the trap rock on which they rested, they held little water and with the exception of one case the only benefit was that of retention of moisture near the surface which could be tapped by nearby shallow wells. In Captain Forsyth's time the Lachora tank, constructed by

1. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p. 191.
2. Ibid, 1911-14, p. 24.

the Ghori Kings of Mandu in the 14th Century was "the solitary instance of a successful irrigation tank."[1] Though designed to irrigate 720 acres, the water storage in the tank could irrigate only 170 to 250 acres of land in the Beria tract. This tract was transferred to West Nimar in 1950, so that now tank irrigation is conspicuous by its absence in the District. Prior to 1911 some tank projects were investigated by the Irrigation Commission, notably those of Ghari and Thattar in Burhanpur Tahsil, but the conclusion reached by the Commission was that they were unable to recommend the construction of such works in tracts like East Nimar. The same situation appears to obtain even now.

Well Irrigation

It is well recognised that well irrigation is the most suitable system in the District. The District lends itself admirably well to the construction of wells for purposes of irrigation. That is why the first ambition of a Nimari cultivator is to own a well. Water can generally be obtained in plenty by sinking wells through the surface soil to tap the underlying moorum. This can generally be effected in most parts at a depth of 15' to 25' only as the moorum will stand at a small slope for a considerable time until it decomposes. In some parts there is supply upto the month of March within 10'-12'. In the more open valleys of the Tapti and the Narmada it is not reached at all within 90' to 100'.

Generally a *kutcha* well is sufficient. A masonry wall is seldom required at first except when there is deep black or *man* soil. But without a retaining wall moorum soon decomposes and slips into the well. The well thus gradually widens and requires annual repairs, or may have to be abandoned after some years.

The popular belief that well water is more fertilising than channel water has lent greater force to the extensiveness of well irrigation in the District.

Since the year 1897, efforts for sinking of new wells and conversion of *kutcha* wells into *pucka* wells were encouraged by granting sanads to the cultivators entitling them to claim exemption from any increase in assessment on the irrigated lands at the next revision. At the time of resettlement (1904) there was a distinct movement for the sinking of wells. Since the inception of Grow More Food Campaign liberal *taccavi* loans are granted for the sinking of new wells and repairs of old ones.

Most of these wells do not hold sufficient water for irrigation. Many of these wells are dug in rocky strata and in many of such wells hard rock is struck at the bottom which defies all local attempts to break it. The problem is most acute in Harsud and Burhanpur Tahsils. Thus, there is a great demand at present for the deepening of such wells If such well-deepening units are available the irrigation potentials of the wells would be fully utilised

1. Ibid, 1868-69, p. 190.

The importance of wells as a source of irrigation has not diminished to this day. The figures given below indicate the number of wells used for irrigation.—

Year	No. of Irrigation Wells
At 20 year's Settlement	1,869
1891-92	3,193
1900-01	4,319
1910-11	5,307
1920-21	3,974
1930-31	4,424
1940-41	5,496
1960-61	9,368

In the year 1962-63, 9,301 wells were being used for irrigation. Out of these wells 71 were Government (15 masonry and 56 non-masonry) and the rest, i.e., 9,230 were private (5,521 masonry and 3,709 non-masonry). At present majority of the wells are masonry.

The area irrigated by wells can be divided into four periods. From 1909-10 to 1929-30 the area fluctuated between 6.1 to 15.1 thousand acres, though these two extremes were not frequent. Between the years 1930-31 to 1942-43 the area under well irrigation was recorded from 10.4 to 14.6 thousand acres. During the period 1943-44 to 1953-54, the well-irrigated area increased upto 19 0 thousand acres. From the year 1954-55 onwards (with the exception of 1954-55 and 1958-59) the figure is constantly above 20,000 acres.

Channel Irrigation

This system of irrigation is quite popular in the District on account of its peculiar physical conditions. The decomposed black trap overlying the mountain ranges in the upper reaches or underlying the rich black cotton soil lower down possesses the properties of absorbing and retaining rain water and it forms almost an inexhaustible source of water supply. In the upper regions water thus absorbed is regenerated as stream flow during the open season This has given rise to a number of perennial streams and rivulets facilitating spread of irrigation.

These streams usually contain running water well into the hot season and their rapid slope facilitates directing of the water into the culturable lands. This is done by threwing a bund across the stream composed of heavy stones and palm trunk or brush wood puddled with clay. It is removed each year to allow the force of monsoon floods to pass and replaced by about the month of November for irrigation of *rabi* crops when water is still flowing in the stream. Small gradient flow channels running at a flat grade taking off from one on either side of the weir (bund) divert this water into the *rabi* fields. On account of good slope of the land, command is easily available within a short distance of the diversion weir. This is called the '*Pat* system' of irrigation. Forsyth ascribes the introduction of this method to the Mughals as it is common in Afghanistan and Mohammedan countries.

With the combined labour of all the beneficiaries it costs little to construct and is very effective in the irrigation of *rabi* crops. As a means of irrigation, channels are inferior to wells. The channel irrigation has inherent difficulties of organisation from which well irrigation is free. Moreover, in a dry year water fails sooner in the streams than in the wells.

A number of masonry diversion weirs have also been constructed to replace the temporary bunds. The earliest examples are the two masonry bunds constructed by Captain French across the river Abna at Kharwa and at Kondia. As more and more of such types of works are taken up, progressive improvement in the design is noticeable. Most of them can cope with the high flood discharge in the river and those which cannot are being provided with suitable surplussing arrangements so as to prevent their out-flanking. But the series of dry years, the cultivation of more remunerative cotton crop and the development of well irrigation have considerably reduced the utility of this mode of irrigation.

The possibilities of nullahs and small streams having sufficient monsoon flow to irrigate small tracts of land are being fully explored

Some 34 schemes costing Rs. 6.25 lakhs with irrigation potential of 1,900 acres of cultivated land have been completed. They are listed in the Table below. The approximate average cost per acre of irrigation comes to Rs. 292.—

Minor Irrigation Works Completed

S No.	Name of Works	Cost (Rs)	Designed Area (Acres)
1.	Khaknar Anicut	23,383	50
2.	Nimandar Anicut	20,839	50
3	Doiphodia Anicut	23,363	65
4.	Badanapur Bhalked Anicut	19,646	50
5	Raitalai Anicut	10,336	25
6.	Karkheda Anicut	22,240	90
7.	Biroda Anicut	14,310	50
8.	Haraswada Anicut	12,350	100
9.	Kharwa Anicut	—	90
10.	Rustampur Anicut	25,000	60
11.	Gambhir Anicut	34,000	100
12.	Ghorwa Anicut	39,000	100
13.	Siloda Anicut	36,000	100
14.	Jawar Anicut	8,000	50
15.	Rangaon Anicut	17,600	60
16.	Talwadia Anicut	28,000	90
17	Mohara Anicut	19,000	55
18.	Piprod Anicut	18,200	50
19.	Bamangaon Anicut	18,300	35

S. No.	Name of Works	Cost (Rs.)	Designed Area (Acres)
20.	Kehlari Anicut	2,500	8
21.	Mundi Anicut	14,100	60
22.	Imlani Anicut	17,000	25
23.	Shahpura Anicut	14,000	50
24.	Kusumbia I Anicut	49,000	60
25.	Goradia Anicut	25,000	50
26.	Belkhedgatti Anicut	20,000	70
27.	Bergaon Anicut	18,500	75
28.	Siliyakhedi Anicut	13,000	50
29.	Saraswati Anicut	7,000	25
30.	Somgaon Anicut	11,300	30
31.	Sonpur Anicut	16,000	40
32.	Dabod Anicut	14,700	40
33.	Jamunia I Anicut	7,000	25
34.	Jamunia II Anicut	6,600	20

Eighteen schemes as detailed below are in various stages of completion. They are estimated to cost Rs. 14.96 lakhs and will increase the irrigated area by 3700 acres. The average cost of irrigation works out to Rs. 404 per acre.

Minor Irrigation Works Under Construction

S. No.	Name of Work	Estimated Cost (Rs.)	Designed Area (Acres)
1.	Chaukhandia Anicut	62,000	165
2.	Utaolinadi Scheme	7,10,000	2,000
3.	Manjri Anicut	1,70,000	300
4.	Kundai Anicut	13,200	35
5.	Sonugaon Anicut	23,500	55
6.	Jamkota Anicut	15,600	40
7.	Gangapat Anicut	83,000	300
8.	Kusumbia II Anicut	40,000	80
9.	Abna Anicut	3,67,000	500
10.	Bhojakhedi Anicut	31,000	60
11.	Dhanora Anicut	25,000	50
12.	Kumthi I Anicut	14,800	60
13.	Kumthi II Anicut	7,500	25
14.	Rajora Anicut	9,100	50
15.	Mokalgaon Anicut	50,000	150
16.	Dhurani Anicut	8,000	20
17.	Khutla Anicut	14,300	35
18.	Dohad Anicut	14,600	40

Survey and investigations in the nature of boreholes and soil analysis are presently in hand for a number of schemes. It is proposed to go ahead with such

preliminaries as construction of service and approach roads, staff-quarters, godowns, etc.

The minor irrigation schemes will chiefly meet the needs of *rabi* crops. Two sub-divisions of Irrigation Department have been set up at Khandwa and Burhanpur to handle such schemes.

Big Irrigation Projects

There are two projects of this kind in the District. One is medium in character and under execution. The other is a multipurpose inter-State river valley project. It is as yet in preliminary stages.

A medium irrigation project, Sukta Project, is under construction in the District, which remains in progress at the end of the Third Plan period. The project envisages the construction of an earthen bund across the Sukta river about one mile to the south-east of Hirapur village in Khandwa Tahsil of the District. The length of the earthen dam (main and subsidiary) will be 10,600′. With 15.5 miles of main canal and 53 4 miles of distributaries and minors the project is estimated to irrigate 56,000 acres of *rabi* and *kharif* crops in the District adding annually 7,400 tons of foodgrains to its granaries and 9,000 bales to its cotton stock. The project is likely to cost Rs. 157.00 lakhs.[1]

An ambitious river valley project of harnessing the waters of the Narmada is also being considered.

The Khosla Committee, headed by A. N. Khosla, Governor of Orissa, in its report submitted on the 2nd September, 1955, recommended a Master Plan for the development of Narmada basin, covering irrigation, power, navigation, fisheries, and tourism. The Plan, says the Committee, should be implemented in phases. The first phase, should include construction of the Punasa (East Nimar District) and Bargi (Jabalpur District) projects in Madhya Pradesh, and the Navgam project in Gujarat. The Committee recommends that the Navgam dam, power plant and appurtenant works should be a joint project of Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat and Maharashtra. The proportions in which the power generated as well as the cost should be shared among the participating Governments have also been worked out.[2]

The details of the project will be finalised on the conclusion of an agreement among the three beneficiary States. It is expected that the share of Madhya Pradesh would be 4 lakh K.W. of power @60 per cent load factor and 0 62 lakh acres of irrigated area with an outlay of Rs. 50 crores.[3]

There are certain reasons militating against spread of irrigation on any large scale. The District has excellent system of *kharif* cultivation Cotton and

1. Third Five Year Plan, Madhya Pradesh, Vol. II, pp 151-152.
2. Bhagirath, Quarterly Magazine (New Delhi). April, 1966, p. 50.
3. Irrigation in Madhya Pradesh, Retrospect and Prospects 1956-1966, p. 118.

jowar, the principal *kharif* crops do not require irrigation and suffer far more from excess than from deficiency of rainfall. Cotton suffers less than any other crop from the early cessation of rains.

But the need for expansion of irrigation arises from the fact that it is desirable that a cultivator should be able to supplement a deficiency of monsoon by timely watering of his *kharif* crops at least once. Irrigation is also necessary to save *kharif* in times of drought. However, its importance is much more in case of holdings growing valuable *rabi* and garden crops. *Rabi* crops are generally grown in the District on black cotton soils—which are only superficial layers of moderate depth and rest upon the porous sub-soil providing good drainage, hence the need of irrigation to bring the *rabi* and garden fields to assured and successful maturity.

Methods of Drawing Water

At the time of Forsyth's Settlement *mote* was the only method of drawing water for irrigation purposes. Even at the time of last Settlement there were practically no *rahats* and water-pumps. Largely they owe their introduction to the Grow More Food Campaign. The popularity of *rahats* and pumping-sets has immensely increased now.

In 1961, there were 12,679 *motes* in the District. About two thirds of the *motes* were being used in Khandwa Tahsil, only about 500 were in use in Burhanpur Tahsil. Persian wheels are not much employed in Burhanpur Tahsil. However, they are equally important in Khandwa and Harsud Tahsils. Pumping-sets have shown phenomenal increase. From 166 sets (164 diesal and 2 electric) they increased to 333 (326 diesel and 7 electric) in 1956 and then to 1,114 (782 diesel and 332 electric) in 1961. The highest number of pumping sets was in Khandwa Tahsil (520) followed by Burhanpur Tahsil (494). The cultivator of Burhanpur lifts the water from the Tapti by means of pumps and conveys it through pipes to his fruits and vegetable orchards to prevent loss of water by seepage or evaporation. This shows his progressive outlook. Today this District is one of the leading districts using pumping sets for drawing water. Rural electrification has given a fillip to the installation of electric pumps. Supply of power in rural areas is not able to cope with the increasing demand.

With greater availability of electricity in rural areas electric irrigation pumps are likely to be installed more and more. Since initial cost and recurring expenditure in the case of electric pumping-sets are appreciably lower than diesel pumping-sets, there is likely to be more demand for electric pumping-sets. With electrical energy being available in the rural areas on desired scale, it may be possible to set up community pumping stations at suitable places on river banks. One such lift-irrigation station is being installed at Manusgaon in Shahpur Block on the Tapti river. This scheme will ultimately irrigate about 4,000 acres.

Irrigated Crops

As already stated irrigation facilities are little developed in the District. Whatever irrigation is there, is mostly confined to Khandwa Tahsil, out of 21,904 irrigated acres in 1961-62, Khandwa had 15,177, Burhanpur 4.585 and Harsud, 2,142. Details of area irrigated by sources for 1909-10 to 1962-63 appear under Appendix—A.

Wheat had the largest area under irrigation, having 12,194 irrigated acres. Other claimants were fruits and vegetables 5,329 acres and condiments and spices 2,675 acres.

Dependence on Rainfall

The agriculture of the District has been overwhelmingly dependent on rainfall. If agricultural production is "a gamble in rains" it has been more so in the East Nimar District. Here the crops, which have been predominantly rain-fed *kharif* crops, mainly depend on the caprices of rain God. The rainfall should not only be adequate in quantum but should also be well-distributed. The average rainfall in the District has been about 30 inches. Out of this, 15 to 20 inches of rainfall is usually received in the three months of June, July and August of early monsoon period. An early down-pour in June is essential for successful germination of cotton crop while the late monsoon rains in-September are vitally needed to bring the *kharif* to maturity and to provide a moist seed bed for *rabi* cultivation. Unless the rain falls in September, the scorching sun of October will cause the crops to wither. Copious and fairly well-distributed rainfall is necessary in the District to sow and reap the irrigated harvests too.

Water Table

Water-table varies greatly in different parts of the District, the average for the fortunate areas being about 30" and for the problem areas of more open valleys of the Tapti and the Narmada being 60" to 100", No data based on any systematic survey of ground-water are available.

Soil Conservation

The District is much broken up by off-shoots of Satpura ranges and is generally rocky and somewhat barren in appearance with no great depth of soil. The Narmada valley here is narrow, intersected by numerous and deep ravines. The District is, therefore, subject to much soil erosion.

Soil erosion of one kind or another is noticeable all over the District, particularly in all river and nullah areas. As would be expected gully erosion occurring in the vicinity of all the large rivers and nullahs, is very marked along the Narmada and the Tapti and the larger tributaries leading into them. Wherever the nullah or the river bed is not rocky it naturally occurs, being of course worse in the areas where the soil is light and friable. The clear-felling of large areas under the old forest working plan has aggravated this state of affairs and in all areas where

grazing is heavy, conditions are still worse, i.e., in Khandwa and Singaji forest ranges. Sheet erosion occurs in all the areas where the underlying rock strata are horizontal or the dip very slight. In these areas, where owing to slow rock disintegration the depth of soil is slight and tree growth consequently scanty with no complete canopy, sheet erosion is at its worst, and large areas showing this type of erosion are common in Singaji, Khandwa, Asir and parts of Chandgarh forest ranges. Where grazing is heavy in these areas, conditions are extremely bad, i.e., in parts of Khandwa and Singaji forest ranges. Surface erosion occurs in all heavily grazed areas; where there is any kind of run-off and where the tree canopy is open. It is noticeable in Khandwa, Singaji, and parts of Punasa and Chandgarh ranges. All the three types of erosion have been aggravated by the clear-felling carried out under the old forest working plans.

However, fortunately a mitigating factor is that rainfall in the District is not heavy; though the heavy showers in July and August cause considerable amount of damage. The cultivators, in general, are aware of the erosion problem, though not in quite a scientific way. When new lands are broken they are bunded with low stone bounds. Practically 90 per cent of the fields are so bounded.

Recently, under the Deputy Director of Agriculture East Nimar, Khandwa, three soil conservation sub-divisions have been opened with their head-quarters at Khandwa, Burhanpur and Harsud, headed by three Assistant Soil Conservation Officers. They are responsible for carrying out soil conservation measures in agricultural lands Dry farming practices are being popularised.

SOILS AND CROPS

Soils

The character of the country varies considerably from tahsil to tahsil. In Harsud it is more broken than in the other tahsils and the soil is generally shallower, for even where appearance is excellent, the fact that the rock is close to the surface detracts largely from its fertility. In the Khandwa Tahsil the surface is generally undulating but there are stretches of excellant soil in the hollows and cultivation is mostly in compact blocks well away from the jungle and the depredation of wild beasts. In the Burhanpur Tahsil there is a small block of excellent flat balck soil in the Tapti valley near Burhanpur probably as fertile a stretch of country as is to be found elsewhere in the State; but generally the Tahsil is hilly and the average of fertility is not much greater than in Khandwa and Harsud. Broadly speaking, it is a District having only moderate soils and owes its prosperity mainly to the industry of its people.

Generally speaking, the disintegrated trap forms the parent material of all soils in the District. The surface soil lies over trap rock and varies in depth from a few inches on the top of ridges to 3′ to 4′ and sometimes even 10′ in the valleys. On the higher lands it often has a sprinkling of boulders over its surface. As a rule, this surface soil lies directly over the trap rock but in some of the larger valleys there is a deposit of yellow sandy alluvium between them. In some of the smaller valleys, the yellow sub-soil is not found at all; but where it exists it varies

from a few inches on the higher ground to from 40′ to 50′ at the bottom of the largest valleys and is sometimes itself the surface soil near the banks of large rivers. As it lies over rock or a sandy sub-soil the surface soil is well-drained.

The soils of the District have not so far been surveyed for scientific soil classification. The existing soil classification in the District rests on the revenue settlement operations in the past. The object of soil classification in these settlements was purely to devise measure for graduating the tax on land and not the scientific study and classification of the soils of the District as a whole. The system of soil classification devised at the last Settlement (1911-14) has been described below. It was not possible to bring the whole District under a uniform system of soil classification. The greater portion of the Harsud Tahsil had prior to 1896 formed part of Hoshangabad District, and as such the Hoshangabad classification was adopted in Harsud Tahsil with modification in two directions only. In the first place, the method of crop classing was practically abandoned. Secondly, allowance was made in Harsud Tahsil for more differentiation in the poorer soils. For Khandwa and Burhanpur tahsils a uniform classification was adopted.

In Khandwa and Burhanpur tahsils the soils were classified into 12 classes, viz., *gata I* and *II*, thawar *I* and *II*, *mal I*, *II* and *III*, *kharda I* and *II*, *pandhar man* and *thari*.

The essence of *gata* land is that it is deep lowlying land capable of being double cropped without irrigation in the normal years. The best *gata* will grow paddy followed by wheat or masur while the inferior *gata* would grow urad or til followed by gram. Cotton is also grown on *gata* but in a year of heavy rainfall the cultivator runs the risk of finding his cotton water-logged. The small patches of *gata* land are considered to be most valuable in the villages.

Thawar land is the deep flat land which is found in the rich valleys of the Narmada and the Tapti. The best *thawar* will grow rabi crops without irrigation, but the *thawar* is now commonly cropped with cotton. The main difference between *thawar I* and *thawar II* is that the latter is lighter in colour and has a large admixture of small grit.

The essence of *mal* classification is its sloping position, its small depth and its pervious sub-soil. Its good drainage makes it admirably suitable for growth of *kharif* crops such as cotton. The differential characteristies of the three *mals* are.—

Mal I.—Black or nearly black; 1½′ or more in depth; has an admixture of fine sand and small grit.

Mal II.—Dark brown, from 1′ to 1½′ in depth, has more sand and pebbles and less even surface than *mal I*; called *domatta* in Burhanpur.

Mal III.—Light brown under 1′ in depth; called *bhuran* in Burhanpur.

Kharda is highlying poor soil of small depth intermixed with limestone nodules and trap pebbles and often covered thickly with round trap pebbles. It grows *kharif* crops only and is often left fallow for a season or two. *Kharda I* is from 4" to 9" in depth, while *kharda II* is less than 4" in depth.

Pandhar is a light coloured soil formed chiefly of the debris of old mud walls of abandoned village sites. It is usually cropped with tobacco, chillies, vegetables and similar crops.

Mana is the denuded light yellow alluvium which has been exposed by erosion of the top soil in some of the more open valleys, e.g., that of the Tapti. It raises only poor *kharif* crops.

Thari is the soil lying beside a river and enriched by the silt of the river. The classification is mainly used in the Burhanpur Tahsil. It is inferior to the *kachhar* of the Narmada valley and is exposed to erosion.

In the Harsud Tahsil seven classes of soils were recognised, viz., *kabar II*, *morand I* and *II*, *rankar*, *kheri I* and *II*, and *barra*.

Kabar II is a deep black soil. There are two kinds. The first is found in low lying places or in places round about a nullah. These are locally called *gatas* or *chelas*. The soil is very fine and black, with few small lime stones. It is of considerable depth and is first class in respect of retentiveness of moisture and productivity. It is mainly a *rabi* soil and is generally double-cropped. It is never irrigated and is capable of producing fair crops even with short rainfall. The second kind of *kabar II* is found on ordinary level ground. In characteristics both are almost similar. The difference between the two classes may be brought out by classifying the first kind as *thal* and the second as *mamuli*.

Morand I is a lighter coloured soil than *kabar II* and is over 2' in depth. It contains small lime stones and is friable. It is used both for *rabi* and *kharif* crops. It may occasionally grow a double crop. *Morand II* is inferior, lighter in colour and contains greater proportion of limes stones and is about 1½' to 2' deep. With good rainfall, it grows wheat; otherwise it is generally sown with gram, cotton, jowar or til. However, depth is not always the most important criterion for *morand II*.

Rankar is a light soil having rock at a depth of about 1' to 1½' It contains a large proportion of lime stones, pebbles and sand. The surface is generally uneven. It grows gram with sufficient rainfall, otherwise only *kharif* crops like cotton, til, kodo, kutki, etc., are grown. Sometimes, shallow black soil is found which can only be classed as *rankar*. Deep red and yellow soil also fall in this class according to value of cropping.

Khari I is about 8" in depth. It is sometimes black in colour and, therefore, deceptive in appearance. It is often yellow or red. It generally grows cotton and jowar and occasionally poor crops of gram.

Khari II is very light soil in colour and has a depth of 4" or 5". It generally grows til or smaller *kharif* millets, such as kodo. It requires resting fallows.

Barra is stony ground which looks incapable of growing any crops whatsoever. Inferior *kharif* millets are often taken on this land, but it requires long resting follows, sometimes upto seven or eight years.

Good soils include *kabar* and *morand I* in the Hrasud Tahsil and *gata, thawar,* and *morand I* in the two other tahsils; medium soils comprise *morand II* and *ranker* in the Harsud Tahsil and *mal II, pandhar* and *thari* in the other two tahsils; while *khari* and *barra* in the Harsud Tahsil and *kharda* and *man* in the other two tahsils are termed poor soils. A comparative picture of the existence of soils thus classified is presented in the Table below.—

(Percentage)

	Good	Medium	Poor
Harsud malguzari	19	49	32
Harsud ryotwari	10	36	54
Khandwa malguzari	32	23	45
Khandwa ryotwari	14	18	68
Burhanpur malguzari	53	16	21
Burhanpur ryotwari	30	31	49
Total malguzari	34	25	41
Total ryotwari	17	28	55
Total District	28	26	46

Note.—In *malguzari* villages the classification referred to land actually cultivated whereas in *ryotwari* the classification of the whole occupied area was included

Crops

The agriculture of this District has remained mainly divided into *kharif* and *rabi* cultivation. The District has carefully nourished the excellent system of *kharif* cultivation. It is notable for the predominance of *kharif* crops. About 90 per cent of the total cultivated area has remained since long under *kharif* crops leaving only about 10 per cent of area for *rabi* cultivation, though light fluctuations may be noticed in some years.

Of the many *kharif* crops, cotton, jowar and groundnut are the most important, together occupying roughly about 72 per cent of the total *kharif* cropped area.

Cotton

Cotton is the most important and main cash crop of the cultivator. During the period of the last seven decades the area under the crop has registered remarkable progress. With a bare 93.7 thousand acres in 1891-92, the area increased

1. Nimar Settlement Report, 1911-14, p. 22.

to 203.4 thousand acres in 1901-02, 324.2 thousand acres in 1910-11 and 431.1 thousand acres in 1925-26, a record not surpassed so far. The years 1942-43 to 1952-53 were not favourable to cotton on account of the Grow More Food Campaign and the preferential treatment accorded to food crops. Apart from this, prices of cotton did not register the steep rise as was registered by the prices of foodgrains. But thereafter cotton has consistently made up the leeway. In the year 1962-63 the area under cotton was 3,67,970 acres and production amounted to 60,368 bales (of 392 lbs. of lint per bale each). The average area and production during the five preceeding years were recorded as 3,45,862 acres and 56,667 bales (392 Lbs. of lint per bale), respectively. The average yield of the crop in a normal year has been 250 lbs. per acre though in 1962-63 this figure was only 190.

For cultivation of cotton, land is prepared by ploughing in the summer season. The stubble of the previous crop is collected in heaps in the field itself and burnt. The *bhakar* (blade harrow) is run ever the land to level the ploughed field. Usually after the first monsoon showers, the field is *bakharred* again to destory the young shoots of weeds. The seed is prepared by weeting it with mud and cowdung and rubbing it against some rough surface such as a rope-woven cot. The cot serves as a sieve also. Now-a-days cultivators have started dressing the seed with mercurial organic and other chemical seed disinfectants to guard against seed-borne diseases. The sewing of the crop generally begins about the end of June (*Ardra Nakshatra*). For cotton sowing, *tifan* (three tyned drill) is used but the seed is not sown through the drill. It only serves as furrow opener. Three separate seed tubes (*sartas*) are attached to the *tifan* and seed is sown through the *sartas*. Progressive cultivators have now started square planting of cotton by the method locally known as *chowfuli*. In this method seed is hand-dibbled at regular distances. Weeding is done by small hoe called *daura* or *kolpa*. The process is repeated two or three times and is supplemented by hand weeding. Cotton is picked by manual labour. The harvest lasts from early November to early February and is generally completed in three pickings.

Jowar

Jowar occupies the second place in order of importance. It is also the staple food crop of the District. The year 1929-30 separates the two periods of area under jowar. In the first period the acreage fluctuated between 142.5 thousand acres (at 20 years' Settlement) and 239.2 thousand acres (1915-16). In the second period the area under jowar fell never below 215 thousand acres and reached its peak during Second World War period on account of the stimulus provided by the Grow More Food Campaign and favourable proces. In 1962-63 jowar covered an area of 2,32,891 acres, and the production amounted to 90 2 thousand tons, a record production since the year 1930-31. Average acre and production during the five preceding years were 2,23,501 acres and 69,559 tons respectively. During the year 1962-63 yield per acre was naturally high, being 868 lbs. per acre against the standard yield of 440.

For jowar the land is prepared by ploughing or *bakharing* in the same way as for cotton. The seed is sown at the commencement of the rains from the 30th June to the 10th July. Jowar is mostly sown mixed with *guar*, *urd*, *moong* or *chowla* (cow peas). A firm seed bed is important, for jowar, for sowing on loose soil involves considerable risk of its being lodged by rain or wind. Jowar seed is treated with copper-sulphate solution or sulpher dust before sowing. The crop is weeded with the *kolpa* or *dundia* (a slightly larger implement) at intervals. As a rule, on well prepared soil jowar needs only one hand weeding. A thriving crop soon shades the ground and weeds more or less suppressed. When the crop is ripe for cutting, the stalks are lopped off close to the ground and are tied in bundles (*pulis*). The harvest lasts for about a month from the middle of December to the middle of January. The threshing of the crop continues till the end of February.

Groundnut

Groundnut which was unknown till the last Settlement and was sown only on 1,000 acres in 1912-13 has steadily occupied a position of prominence in the cropping pattern of the District. It accounted for 10.3 thousand acres in 1925-26, 46.9 thousand acres in 1945-46 and 77 8 thousand acres in 1962-63. The high water mark was reached in 1959-60 when groundnut occupied 101 1 thousand acres. In 1962-63 the total out-turn of the crop was 14.7 thousand tons. During the five preceding years, area and out-turn averaged 90,812 acres and 22,714 tons, respectively. Usually the small variety is preferred. It was sown in 88 per cent of the groundnut area in 1962-63. The average out-turn in a normal year is 700 lbs. per acre. The crop is mostly sown on lighter soils. The land is summer-ploughed and the crop is sown early in July after the cotton sowing is over. It is sown in closely spaced rows. Weeding is done by Akola hoe and one or two hand weedings may be necessary. The crop is harvested early in October.

Paddy

Paddy cultivation has shown steady advance during the last three decades, i.e., since 1931-32. During the three preceding decades area fluctuated widely. Some significant figures of acreage are 1931-1932, 20.1 thousand acres; 1936-37, 29 9 thousand acres, 1942-43, 37.3 thousand acres; and 1957-58, 58.7 thousand acres In 1962-63 paddy was grown in 64,691 acres (quinquennial average, 61,175 acres) and yielded an out-turn of 18,115 tons (quinquennial average 15,808 tons) of half polished rice. The yield was estimated at 660 lbs. per acre of half polished rice against the standard of 1960. Paddy cultivation in the District is confined to low-lying patches and fields which retain moisture for a considerable period. The increase in area under the crop reflects the improved conditions of the peasentry. The crop is grown mostly for domestic consumption. The increased production indicates the change in the dietary habits of the cultivators with more consumption of rice. In the diet of the Nimar cultivator which consists mainly of jowar, rice is a nicety. In Nimar rice is called *chokha*, which literally means fine or nice.

The land is prepared in the same way as for other *kharif* crops. The crop is sown with a three tyned implement called *tisa* and is seldom irrigated. It is neither broadcast nor transplanted but is line-sown. The varieties in the District are early and medium ripening and are harvested from the middle of September to the end of October. The crop is followed by wheat or gram depending on moisture condition of the soil.

The other rain fed food grains of lesser importance are, bajra, maize, kodo, kutki and sawan. Their acreage and yield during 1962-63 were as under.—

	Area (Acres)	Out turn (Tons)
Bajra	3,937	1,685
Maize	4,062	1,864
Kodon	5,257	524 (cleaned)
Kutki	8,753	524 (cleaned)
Sawan	7,657	762

Pulses

Till the last Settlement *tur* was the main pulse crop of the District but urad has stolen a march over it and today urad is the main pulse crop of the District. The area under urad crop at the last Settlement (1913-14) was about 30,500 acres In 1962-63 urad black (*kharif*) area was 71,774 acres, the quinquennial average being 66,315 acres. The average yield in a normal year is 300 lbs. per acre. This remarkable increase in the area under this crop is mainly due to three factors— (i) the realisation that urad is soil enriching legume, hence its introduction as a mixture with jowar. Today pure jowar area is practically nil and legumes (mainly urad) are mixed with jowar, (ii) remunerative prices fetched by this crop. It has become the short-term cash crop for the cultivators in this District. and, (iii) realisation of its residual manurial value and its widespread use as the first crop before paddy in double-cropped areas. The crop is mostly sown mixed with jowar or is sown as the first crop in the double-cropped area where wheat is sown in *rabi* season.

Tur is the next important pulse crop of the District, occupying on an average 32,997 acres during the five year period ending 1962-63. The actual area in 1962-63 was 34,103 acres. The average yield in a normal year is 1,240 lbs. per acre. The crop is line sown but it is taken mixed generally with cotton or jowar. Jowar and those crops though sown in separate lines are sown mixed in the field The other important pulse crops of the District are moong, 13,000 acres and kulthi (horse-gram), 9,000 acres.

Oilseed Crops

Area under all oilseeds totalled 1,03,222 acres including area under groundnut during 1962-63. The groundnut crop, the most important among the oilseed crops of the District has already been mentioned. The other oilseed crop next in

importance is that of til. During the period in which *ryotwari* villages were settled and large virgin areas were brought under cultivation, the area under til which grows exceptionally well on fresh soil increased considerably. The area under the crop which at Forsyth's Settlement was 20,000 acres increased to 46,000 acres in 1891-92 and 86,000 acres in 1900-01. As the cultivation in the newly broken lands stabilized, the area under the crop was also reduced. The area has steadily shrunk after 1915-16, in which year an all time high record of 1,05,800 acres was established. In 1962-63 it has accounted for 20,720 acres. The standard yield has been recorded as 250 lbs. per acre. In the same year area under linseed cultivation was 4,487 acres.

Wheat

The most important *rabi* crop of the District is wheat. Wheat was grown in an area of 31.8 thousand acres in 1891-92. With an erratic trend during the following years, the acreage again stood at almost the same level in 1925-26. Thereafter, a definite buoyancy is visible (excepting in few isolated years, viz., 1947-48. 1948-49 and 1952 53) reaching the record area and out-turn of 81.1 thousand acres and 23.2 thousand tons in 1959-60. In 1962-63 wheat was sown in 64,348 acres (quinquennial average 63,324 acres). The increase in area can be attributed to better prices and more irrigation facilities though even today it is mainly a rain fed crop, only 13,183 wheat acres being irrigated. The out-turn during the same year was recorded as 19,589 tons (quinquennial average 14,808 tons). Standard yield has been worked out as 540 lbs. per acre being 691 for irrigated and 475 for unirrigated. Wheat is mainly confined to tracts adjoining Hoshangabad District in Harsud Tahsil. The crop is usually grown on rich low lying lands and frequently as a second crop after paddy. The land is prepared by *bakhar* immediately after the previous crop has been harvested to clear it of stubbles Fine seed bed is of great importance for this crop. Land is, therefore, *bakhared* several times in summer season and in rainy season during the breaks in the rains. During the summer the soil is allowed to weather in the sun which is supposed to greatly invigorate it. Sowing usually begins towards the middle of October. Wheat is sown by a two tyned drill called *duso* and to a lesser extent by the *nari*-plough The crop generally is not weeded, and is harvested in February.

Gram

The *rabi* crop next in importance to wheat is gram in the District. Gram is sown on the land which does not hold sufficient soil moisture for wheat crop. The area under this crop is about 18,700 acres with an out-turn of about 3,600 tons. The average yield in a normal year is 480 lbs per acre. The other *rabi* pulses of minor importance are masur, peas and teora. Their acreage and out-turn in 1962-63 are given below.—

	Area (Acres)	Out-turn (Tons)
Masur	5,496	851
Peas	579	67
Teora	195	37

Fruits and Vegetables

The fruits and vegetables occupied 1.1 thousand acres in 1914-15. The area remained almost the same till it increased to 2.0 thousand acres in 1934-35. Thereafter, the area rose to 3.1 thousand acres in 1943-44, 4.1 thousand acres in 1947-48, 5.4 thousand acres in 1959-60 reaching an all time high of 6.4 thousand acres in 1962-63. The area under different fruits and vegetable grown in 1962-63 is detailed below.—

Furits	Area (Acres)	Vegetable	Area (Acres)
Gauva	160	Potato	22
Papaye	40	Sweet potato	51
Banana	1,434	Onion	1,740
Orange	890	Others	
Mango	303	Winter	444
Others	517	Summer	766
Total fruits—	3,344	Total vegetable	3,023

Onion is the most important vegetable crop of the *rabi* season. During the year it yielded an out-turn of 12,243 tons. Burhanpur Tahsil, the most progressive amongst the three Tahsils of the District is raising the finest crops of banana which are finding an export market also.

Important Minor Crops

There are a few crops which cover very small areas of land but deserve mention due to their economic importance. They are, (1) Ganja, (2) Betel leaf (Pan), (3) Grapes, and (4) Lendi pipal. Ganja crop was looked upon in the 18th Century as a speciality of the District. It was exported from here in many directions. The area covered by the crop has progressively declined Betel leaf (Pan) creeper was grown in the District to a small extent in the time of Captain J. Forsyth, who gives an illustrative account. "Nimar was", he says, "at one time celebrated for its production. The Lall Bagh garden near Boorhanpore was so famous for its pan that Scindia invariably sent for it from Gwalior for his own use. so long as the Lall Bagh was in his territory. For some reason, however, its cultivation was prohibited after we got the garden, I believe with some object of turning it into a "people's park" for Boorhanpore. It was, however, turned into a rank jungle instead " Regarding the method of cultivation of pan Forsyth observed that there were some peculiarities in the Nimar method of cultivation by which instead of lasting only two years a pan *tanda* once established yielded steadily for 10 or 12 years. Cultivation of pan is concentrated in the western part of East Nimar in the villages of Arud, Barud, Bargaon, Buzurg, Rustampur, Diwal and Bhambada, over an area of 44.25 acres in 1960-61. The common variety is Bangla. The leaves are of medium size, viz., 3.5"X5", dark green in

colour and heart-like in shape, and pungent in taste. Kapoori is a speciality of Bhambada. It is medium in size and pointed in shape. Condiments and spices were grown in 5,579 acres, sunn hemp in 2,253 acres and sugarcane in 648 acres.

Disused Crops

There are two crops which external forces had driven out from the District long ago. In 1872 opium growing was prohibited by the Government and thus its cultivation became extinct. Al-Maddar (*Morinda citrifolia*) a crop of dye plant was extirpated by the introduction of aniline dyes in the market.

Changes in the Cropping Pattern

Introduction of the groundnut cultivation is one of the most important steps taken by the Agricultural Department in the field of agriculture in the District. Primarily introduced to serve as a rotation crop with cotton, it has now firmly established itself. Till the first decade of this Century, normal agriculture of the District consisted of jowar and cotton which together covered 60 per cent of the total cropped area. The cropping pattern of the District has become diversified and more stable with the introduction of this leguminous crop. Since then jowar--groundnut—cotton has come to be recognised as the standard three year rotation pattern. Groundnut which covered 0.1 per cent of the total cropped area of the District in 1912-13, extended over a tenth of the cropped area in 1959-60. This is a spectacular progress and marks an important phase in the commercial development of agriculture of the District.

Cotton

History of cotton cultivation in the District presents an interesting study. In the early years of the British rule the District cultivated comparatively small amount of cotton which was utilized in spinning home-made yarn.

The opening of main line Railway, synchronized with the impetus given by the American Civil War, resulted in a considerable expansion of cotton cultivation for export in the cotton tract adjoining the Railway notably the Nagpur country and Nimar. This expansion was, however, confined to a narrow belt not more than 50 miles wide on each side of the Railway. cotton being too bulky an article to be profitably carried by road for a longer distance. This obsession for cotton cultivation helped in its great increase not only in the true cotton country but also in adjoining tracts where seasons of light rainfall encouraged its trial Burhanpur cultivator would sacrifice jowar in order to have more cotton. Cultivation of cotton was further stimulated by establishment of more than two dozens of cotton ginning and pressing factories in the District during the beginning of the last decade of the 19th Century Cotton which occupied 10 per cent of the cropped area at Forsyth's Settlement (1868-69) and 27 per cent at Montgomeries Settlement (1896) monopolised 40 per cent of the total sown area by the year 1912-13. In 1925-26, cotton covering an area of 431 thousand acres was the highest expan-

sion ever to have occurred. This development in cotton cultivation had been further helped by a series of favourable seasons together with substantial incerase in the price of cotton. Thus, cotton had established its popularity probably never to wane. The remarkable increase in the cotton area marked the phase of economic development of the District. But phenomenal expansion of cotton area had occurred at the cost of an area under jowar, a long standing staple food crop of the District which progressively declined. However, as a result of cotton breeding work and introduction of better and higher yielding cotton varieties after 1925-26 the trend of increase in the cotton area was halted. In 1962-63 cotton accounted for 36 per cent of the total cropped area of the District.

All these changes have undoubtedly proved to be of great promise and benefit from the point of view of economic advancement of the cultivators who on their part have shown great deal of intelligence and adaptability to changing conditions. Glowing tributes have been paid to the wisdom and industry of the cultivators of Khandwa and Burhanpur. They are credited with raising excellent cotton crops from the shallow soils and making the best use of available resources. But the basis of cultivators' industry and prosperity lies in the early introduction of the cotton crop the cultivation of which was encouraged by the British Rulers to make Great Britain independent of the American supplies. This paid rich dividends to the cultivators. It may be of interest to note that cotton is one of the crops which became the earliest subject matter of agronomic research.

PROGRESS OF SCIENTIFIC AGRICULTURE

Agricultural implements

Nagar

The *nagar* or the *deshi* plough in this District has blade (*phal*) about 3' long and 1" square fixed to a heavy wooden body *data*. The *nagar*, and most of the other agricultural implements in the District are made of *babul* wood. The iron plough was introduced about the year 1935 but its use is still very limited, though during the decade 1951-61, the number of ploughs increased more than two-fold. In 1961 there were 10,418 iron ploughs in the District as against 65,178 wooden ploughs. The iron mould-board plough is generally preferred for deep ploughing and preparation of land. The *deshi* plough is used for eradication of woods, preparation of the *rabi* fields during the rainy season and similar operations.

Bakhar

The *bokker* or the blade harrow is the principal agricultural implement of the District. The share, called *pas* consists of 2" to 3" wide and about 10" long iron blade fixed into a flat block of wood called *khod*. The *bakhar* is used for preparation of land when ploughing is not done. It is also used for breaking up clods in ploughed land and for harrowing the surface. It is often used to prepare seed bed and to suppress the young shoots of woods. The *bakhar*, sometimes is used even in sowing of cotton, jowar and tur.

The *tifan* or the three tyned seed-drill is the most common sowing implement of the District. Two types of *tifans* are used: the ordinary *kharif tifan* and the *rabi tifan* of which the latter is a little heavier. For *rabi*-sowing *dufan* which has only two types for sowing two furrows at a time is also used. For sowing crops such as paddy a modified *tifan* called *tisa* is often used. Some crops such as cotton are sown through separate seed tubes called *sartas* which are attached to the *tifan*. The implements used for interculture between the rows of crop are *kolpas* or *dauras* which are small blade harrows.

The iron plough first came into use about the year 1935. The introduction of the mould-board plough and heavy turn-wrest plough brought in considerable efficiency in the mode of agriculture in the District. These iron ploughs found general acceptance and summer ploughing of lands became a general practice. Improved agricultural implements are progressively becoming popular since they were first introduced. The District can legitimately take pride in having the second largest number of iron ploughs in the State. The 1961 Census recorded 10,418 iron ploughs in the District as against 65,178 wooden ploughs. The ratio of iron to wooden ploughs is the highest in the District. Akola hoes are in use with the progressive cultivators. In 1962-63 the District had 53 sugarcane crushers (24 power, 29 bullocks) , 856 oil-engines, 354 electric pumps, 16 tractors and 134 *ghanis*. Winnowing-fans, winnowers, olpad threshers chaff-cutters, *rahats*, etc., are also gaining popularity in the District.

But for a few privately owned tractors in the District agriculture depends mainly on bullock drawn implements. The follow-up cultivation in the District, generally, does not need deep ploughing every year. Deep ploughing may be required once in three years. The tractor, therefore, is found useful only for such operations. Unsatisfactory repair facilities and non-availability of tractor-drawn implements suitable for this tract are some of the factors hindering progress of large scale mechanisation of agriculture. The number of tractors in 1963 was 16.

Seed

The cultivator of the District is well aware of the importance of good seed in agriculture. Cotton being the most important crop, seed improvement work was mainly concentrated on cotton seed in this District. Work on the development of *deshi* cotton to cater to the needs of the cultivators of the District was started in 1923 under the auspices of the Central Provinces Botanical Scheme. The Scheme was financed by the Indian Central Cotton Committee . A wilt resistant strain V-262 was isolated in 1927 but it was found susceptible to late rains and was replaced by late Verum. Even this could not stay long as people got accustomed to high ginning percentage of Roseum. Efforts were directed at evolving an all-round variety which culminated in the production of V-434 in 1931 by selection. It was drought and wilt-resistant and though inferior in yield and ginning out-turn it rapidly displaced V-262. Some American cottons were also selected out of which Buri 107 was found to be the best. Later V-434 in its turn started yielding ground to Jarilla (a re-selection from V-262 bred out in Khandesh) because the

latter possessed a higher ginning value. On account of some shortcomings it could not offer permanent solution. In the meantime large scale hybridization work was also being continued leading to the evolution of variety H 420 in 1935 from the cross Bani Caro Hill cotton. It was propagated and distributed in Khandwa and Harsud Tahsils. American cottons had acclimatized themselves to the climate of Burhanpur Tahsil by the third decade of the Century and Buri 107 was distributed in this area. It was later replaced by 0304. It started gaining popularity after the Second World War obviously due to its fibre quality. Work on American cottons was further continued with the object of isolating improved strains and American Buri variety. Consequently Buri 0394 was introduced in the District. These two varieties H 420 and 0394 were found to be suitable for the Nimar tract as a whole. Another variety A 51-9 evolved at Khargone was released in 1959 under the name 'Narmada' and is being recommended to replace 0394. It is also getting popular with the farmers.

The new and better varieties introduced by Agriculture Department were accpeted by the cultivators with the result that the original *desi (jadi)* cotton went totally out of cultivation. Seed improvement is a continuous process and in this process different varieties remained popular in different periods. Some of the main varieties are given below.—

1930-34	Verum	262
1935-42	Verum	434
1942-48	Jarilla	—
After 1948	H-420, and Buri 0394	

The present improved varieties of cotton in the District are Buri 0394, A-51-9 and H-420. The extent to which the cultivators have accepted the improved varieties can be seen from the fact that many compact blocks of only one variety areas have been formed in the District without any legislation. For example, the whole of the Khaknar Block is a 0394 variety Block.

As in the case of cotton, improved varieties of other crops have also been widely accepted by the cultivators. This Saoner type of jowar has become popular in the District. Most of the groundnut area of the District has come under the improved type A.K. 12-24. Similarly, in the case of wheat nearly the whole of the irrigated wheat area has come under-Hy-65 variety during the last few years. Early ripening Kopargaon moong has become popular amongst the cultivators of the District.

The Nimar cultivator is famous for the excellent use he makes of even the poor soils with the use of manure. Forsyth mentions of a custom he found prevailing in some villages where the poorer cultivators turn out with baskets in the morning. When the village cattle are first let loose, and the first of them, who *sees a tail raised* and calls out, is deemed to have a right to catch that portion of the precious fertilizer, if he can. It speaks of the high value the cultivator of Nimar

attached to cow-dung though by ignorance his method of preparation of manure was wasteful and by sneer necessity he was forced to use it as fuel to cook his meals. Sometimes the system of green soiling by sunn-hemp was also resorted to, as a substitute for manuring. Ashes obtained by burning stalks of previous year's cotton and tur crop were also occasionally scattered in the fields.

The cow-dung and farm-yard manure continue to be the main manures used in the District. The utilisation of cattle dung as fuel has decreased to a considerable extent. The two municipalities of Khandwa and Burhanpur have developed scientific composting of night-soil and town-refuse and the municipal compost has gained such popularity that it finds ready market. In a number of villages compost is being prepared in small pits regularly. Similarly, cow-dung manure is regularly used by a majority of cultivators.

The District occupies the unique position in using the largest quantities of chemical fertilisers amongst the unirrigated districts of the State. Leaving aside the four districts in rice tract where rice is grown under irrigated conditions, this District occupies enviable position in the use of chemical fertilisers. The popularity of the chemical fertilisers can be judged from the fact that distribution of the fertilisers which amounted to about 300 tons a decade back increased to about 1,200 tons in 1958-59.

Rotation of Crops.—The crop rotation and the traditional modes of cultivation were reoriented with the introduction of the groundnut crop in the District. The introduction of this leguminous crop provided the three year rotation, jowar groundnut-cotton, and helped in the maintenance of soil fertility. Similarly, introduction of legumes like urad, moong in jowar crop was another step towards building up soil fertility. At the last Settlement and thereafter for a good many years jowar was sown as pure crop. Today, all the jowar crop of the District is sown mixed with legumes. Urad crop gained popularity with the recognition of its manurial value. The area under this crop increased enormously. The practice of leaving fallow land for the *rabi* crop of wheat or the next *kharif* crop practically ceased. Most of the *rabi* area is either green manured or sown with short duration legume crops.

Agricultural Diseases and Pests

Plant diseases and pests were mostly looked upon as natural calamities and very few direct remedial measures were taken in the traditional mode of agriculture. But today the Nimari cultivator, by his sound agricultural practices controls crop diseases and pests to a great extent. Summer ploughing of land and collection and burning of crop residues prevent to a considerable extent the carry over of diseases and pests. Clean cultivation, crop rotation, etc, also help in controlling them. For example, in jowar, *agia* (striga), a parasitic plant which feeds on jowar roots and does enormous damage to the crop is controlled to a great extent by taking some other crops from the striga infected field for some years. Now a reliable remedy is available to the cultivators. Spraying with weedicide such as

2, 4-D destroys striga. Progressive cultivators make extensive use of weedicides and plant protection chemicals.

The plant diseases and pests over which control has been achieved to a considerable extent in this District are smut disease of jowar, the wilt disease of cotton, pink boll worm of cotton and the rust of wheat. The smut of jowar (*Sphacelotheca sorghi*) locally called *kani* is a seed-borne disease. It is controlled by disinfecting the seed. Practically all the cultivators in the District treat the jowar seed with copper sulphate before sowing, to control this desease. More powerful disinfectants like sulphur dust and organo mercurial compounds have been recently introduced and are getting popular rapidly.

The cotton wilt (*Fusarium vasinfectum*) did considerable damage in the past. The disease has been controlled by breeding wilt-resistant varieties of cotton. The original wilt-susceptible strains have now been completely replaced by wilt-resistant strains.

The cycle of pink boll worm of cotton (*Platyedra gossypiella*) continues through the seed and the effective control measure is to treat the seed before sowing. The treatment of the seed with chemicals such as Agresan G. N. and Ceresan has been introduced and the majority or the cultivators now disinfect cotton seed with seed dressing chemicals before sowing. The seed treatment not only serves to control pink boll worm but also serves as a control against Anthracnoss (*Colletotrichum indicum*) and angular leaf spot or blackarm (*Xanthomonas malvacearum*).

The wheat rust, locally called *gerua* did considerable damage specially in the irrigated wheat fields in the past. The disease has been now controlled to a great extent by the introduction of rust-resistant varieties of wheat with the result that the irrigated wheat area in the District is now practically saturated with rust-resistant variety Hy. 65.

The scientific plant protection measures are now getting popular in the District. A fully equipped plant protection unit operates at the District headquarters. All the Blocks are well-equipped with plant protection machines and chemicals and some of the Gram Panchayats and progressive cultivators now own plant protection equipment.

Activities of Agricultural Department

The activities of the State Department of Agriculture are projected through the District Agriculture Officer. A separate office to look after this District was constituted on the 1st May 1948. Previous to this the District was under the jurisdiction of the neighbouring District Offices. The activities of the Agriculture Department in the District relate to the extension of scientific methods of agriculture amongst the farmers through demonstration and propaganda work. The Demonstration Kamdar and the Gram Sewaks maintain direct and personal

contact with the progressive cultivators at the village level and are responsible for executing the programme of agricultural improvement at the village level. The Agricultural Assistants and the Agricultural Extension Officers also maintain a fairly good personal contact with the progressive cultivators.

The important duties of the field staff have been the spreading of the information relating to agricultural improvements through distribution of pamphlets, bulletins and other literature and personal contacts; group discussions; organisation of occular demonstrations agricultural improvements on the Seed and Demonstration Farms and on the fields of the cultivators, organisation of farmers' days and organising agricultural shows at fairs, etc. With the inception of the Grow More Food Campaign in 1943-44 the activities of the Agriculture Department were intensified. The introduction of the Community Development Programme with its particular emphasis on stepping up agricultural production provided further stimulus in this direction.

Agriculture Department has launched Intensive Area Programme in East-Nimar for cotton, groundnut and jowar.

Agricultural Farms

The District has one Seed and Demonstration Farm covering an area of 180 acres out of which about 127 acres are under crops. The Farm, which started functioning in the year 1920 is located on Khandwa Jaswadi road, at a distance of about three miles from Khandwa. The soil of the Farm is medium to light with a few patches of black cotton soil. The area receives an annual rainfall of 30". The river Abna provides, perennial irrigation.

The twin objects of the Farm are to conduct research on cotton, groundnut fruits and other crops, and to multiply and supply pure nucleus seeds of all the crops grown in the District, i.e., cotton, groundnut, jowar, wheat, moong, urad, etc The Farm distributed 37.7 thousand lbs. of improved seeds to the cultivators, in the year 1958-59. The Farm, in addition, demonstrates the improved techniques of cultivation, as recommended by the Department of Agriculture. The Farm has now been transferred to the Jawaharlal Nehru Krishi Vishwa Vidyalaya, Jabalpur, which has started a research centre there. Seed multiplication and demonstration farm each extending over an area of about 100 acres were established at Badkhelia and Burwaha in Harsud Tahsil in 1959-60 and at Burhanpur in 1960-61

Vidya Mandir Plots

In the year 1939, a scheme known as Vidya Mandir Scheme was started in the Central Provinces with the object of making the primary education self-supporting by locating Vidya Mandirs (literally temples of education) on donated farm land. They were also to serve as centres of all-round development of the village community. There are three Vidya Mandir plots in the District. One is

situated at Kharwa in Harsud Tahsil (area 34 acres). The other two are situated in Burhanpur Tahsil at Daryapur (area 33 acres) and Shekhpur (area 34 acres). They are being run by the Department of Agriculture and doing good work as demonstration centres.

Practical demonstrations are also held on the fields of cultivators which bring home to the cultivators the techniques of cotton sowing by *chaufuli*, jowar sowing by Poona method, groundnut sowing by dibbling, fertilizer application, seed treatment, etc., Intensive work is done in aboriginal areas, viz., Khalwa and Khaknar Blocks.

Co-operative Movement in Agriculture

In the past an important aspect of the work of the Agriculture Department related to the spread of co-operative movement in the agricultural field. Here the main activities were.—

(1) Organisation of Tahsil Agricultural Associations. Officers of the Department worked as ex-officio members in such Associations.

(2) Doing necessary propanganda and demonstration work for building up of sales of improved seeds, fertilisers, implements, etc., through such Associations.

(3) Organisation of better farming and other co-operative farming societies.

(4) Organisation of co-operative cotton pools.

Now the responsibility of this co-operative movement rests with the Co-operation Department.

It was thought that agricultural associations, that is, organised bodies could act as an agency through which extension activities of the Agriculture Department could be furthered and supplemented and the dissemination of knowledge of agricultural improvement could be achieved. But the hopes formed of them were not fulfilled.

Co-operative Farming Societies

With a view to securing increase in agricultural production co-operative farming has been encouraged and developed in the District. The setting up of co-operative farming societies as pilot and non-pilot projects has been facilitated by giving them financial assistance in the form of managerial subsidy, subsidy and loan for godown-cum-cattle sheds, medium term loans and share capital contribution. Details of such farming societies which have been formed till the year 1964-65 are given in Appendix—A. Pilot project area is in Khandwa Block.

Of the 13 pilot project societies one established in 1961-62 has since gone into liquidation and financial assistance given to it recovered. Societies organised

during 1963-64 have been advanced credit by the Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Khandwa. Collective Farming Society. Dongalia, remained defunct and was liquidated.

Better Farming Societies

Ten such societies were registered during 1958-59 and 1959-60. Their tahsil-wise distribution has been as under.—

Tahsil	*Place*
Khandwa	Badgaon Gujar, Delgaon, Pipri, Galgaon Bhakrada.
Burhanpur	Chapora, Satpayari, Umardha.
Harsud	Bothia, Langoti.

The overall position of the better farming societies as on the 30th June, 1964, was—total membership, 896; total share capital, Rs. 28, 800; deposits, Rs. 2,737; reserves, Rs. 14,174 working capital, Rs. 3,68,696; advances and loans to members, Rs. 2,12,764; amount outstanding, Rs 2,96,789 (of which a sum of Rs. 68,214 was overdrawn) and profit earned Rs. 10,874. All these societies have been distributing seeds and fertilisers to their members on loan. Government assistance in the form of free services of Manager-cum-Secretary for two years and participation in share capital to the extent of Rs. 3,000 per society are provided.

Service Co-operative Societies

At the close of the year 1963-64 , there were 284 service co-operative societies as against 38 in 1961-62. These societies are distributing improved seeds and fertilizers and advancing loans to their members for agricultural purposes, viz., purchase of improved agricultural implements. There is provision for subsidy also.

Co-operative Marketing

In the year 1945 an Agricultural Association was organised at Bir in Khandwa Tahsil with the object of assisting its members in disposing of their agricultural produce, giving on hire improved agricultural implements and machinery to members, storing of agricultural produce, manufacturing improved agricultural implements, supplying agricultural requisites such as implements, spare parts, manures, seeds and controlled articles, like sugar, cloth, kerosene oil, iron. etc. The Association incurred heavy losses and went into liquidation.

Development of co-operative marketing has been now given a place of special importance in the scheme of integrated rural credit recommended in the Rural Credit Survey. In addition to their role in respect of handling of agricultural produce on terms favourable to the producer, marketing societies are expected to serve as distributors of agricultural requisites to co operative societies and their members. State aid by way of share capital contribution, loan and subsidy for construction of godowns and subsidy for meeting the managerial expenses for a period of three years are being provided to them.

There are three co-operative marketing societies functioning in the District at the three tahsil head-quarters, viz., Khandwa Burhanpur and Harsud. The details about their working and progress made by them under different activities till 30th June, 1964, are given in Appendix—A.

It may be added here that Burhanpur and Khandwa societies have further been provided with Government assistance in the form of share capital contribution for construction of cotton ginning and pressing units to the tune of Rs. 2.5 lakhs and Rs. 1.5 lakhs, respectively. The societies have already acquired land for construction of these units.

The principal activities of all these societies include cotton pooling and distribution of fertilisers, agricultural implements, cotton seeds, insecticides, etc. The Khandwa Society also functions as Agent to the Madhya Pradesh State Co-operative Marketing Society Ltd., Jabalpur, and the State Department of Agriculture, for the distribution of chemical fertilisers and cotton seed, respectively. During the year 1963-64 it pooled cotton weighing 7,184 quintals as against 28,081 maunds in 1960-61. Value of lint and seed amounted to Rs. 7.91 lakhs and Rs.1.79 lakhs as against Rs. 9,47 and Rs. 2.46 lakhs, respectively in 1960-61. Net profit earned amounted to Rs. 13,159 in 1960-61 and Rs. 11,321 in 1963-64.

The Harsud Co-operative Marketing Society deals in *kachchi adat* of agricultural produce, pooling of cotton, groundnut and distribution of chemical fertilisers, cotton seeds, agricultural implements, sugar and G. C. sheets. The total purchases and sales of the Harsud Co-operative Marketing Society amounted to Rs. 1.95 lakhs and Rs. 2.18 lakhs in 1961-62, and Rs. 8.71 lakhs and Rs. 8.42 lakhs in 1963-64.

The Co-operative Processing and Marketing Society, Burhanpur, pooled cotton weighing about 1.924 quintals in 1961-62 and 6,575 quintals in 1963-64 valued at Rs. 2.44 lakhs and Rs. 8.49 lakhs, respectively. The profit of the Society amounted to Rs. 33,993 in 1963-64 as against Rs. 13,000 in 1961-62.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In a District like East Nimar where agriculture is the mainstay of the bulk of the population and all farming operations—from preparation of the field to the transport of the produce —depend upon motive power supplied by the cattle, the importance of animal husbandary cannot be over emphasized. The number of livestock by different groups may be seen in Appendix—A.

The Nimari cattle have been famous for their extreme activeness and power of endurance. Nimari is not a fixed breed but a cross between Khillari and Gir breeds of cattle A large number of pure specimens of this breed are found in the various parts of the District. This breed is also known as Khargoni breed. The cattle are bred by professional semi-nomadic breeders known as Bharwads and Ahirs. In Nimari breed the forehead is flat, the head is small, light and clean,

ears short, eyes round, black, prominent and bright with black eyelids. Horns are of medium size, the neck thick and fairly long and the dewlap short and somewhat light. The hump is small, the chest prominent, the forearms and thighs long and muscular, the cannon bones round, clean, compact and short and the hoofs strong and black. The abdomen is not very large and the sheath is small and light. The hind-quarters are round but inclined to be short. The colour is usually red with large white splashes on different part of the body.

The superiority of cattle found in this tract can be largely attributed to the fact that in jowar the cultivator has one of the best of the bulky fodders grown in the State, which renders him more or less independent of grazing. This is further supplemented by cotton-seed and edible oil-cake.

In this tract the land is so valuable and grazing so small that people do not rear cattle but purchase them. Where pasture is less, the number of cattle is less, stall-fed, wellfed and of superior quality.

The Nimari is a general utility breed. The bullocks are generally an excellent beast being active-spirited and hardy with an average height of 18" to 52". They are well-adapted for fast work and for driving in *chhakdas*. They have good staying power and are particularly useful for work on stony land. Their strength to drag the plough on heavy soils may be doubtful but they are perfectly suited to the little drought required in tilling the *kharif* soils, as well as to the work of drawing water rapidly from shallow wells, though the work of drawing water tends to wear them out somewhat rapidly.

Nimari cows are not good milkers, three litres being the maximum yields in two milkings in a day, the average being 1½ to 2 litres. A few cows of Hariana and Hissar breed are also imported as they are good milkers. Certain cows of Khargoni breed yield milk upto 10 liters per day. According to the Livestock Censuses the cattle population of the District was 3,35,067 in 1951 as against 3,22,010 in 1940. In 1961 it was 4,27,762 as against 4,01,427 in 1956.

She-buffaloes are reared in this District for milk production. The males are exported to Khandesh and Chhattisgarh regions, where they are used for ploughing. Their average daily milk-yield comes to six to eight litres. Their population during the last 20 years has remained almost stationary and ranged from 79 to 91 thousand. The number of buffaloes in 1940, 1945 and 1951 was 85,120; 90,269 and 73,931 respectively. It was 91,396 in 1961 as against 97,831 in 1956

A few animals of Malvi breed also are found in the District. Compact, medium sized and usually of white colour, they are immensely useful for work, docile and adaptable to varying conditions of work, climate and soil.

Most of the proprietors and cultivators of the District keep a few heads of cows or buffaloes for breeding purposes as a supplement to cultivation. Each proprietor possesses an average of five to six heads of cows and buffaloes and each

cultivator an average of two heads, besides his plough bullocks. They are chiefly kept for milk production and preparation of curd and ghee for domestic consumption or sale. The number of cows and cow-buffaloes per 1,000 of human population was 154 and 226, respectively, in 1961 in the District.

Bulls are kept mainly for breeding purposes The remaining ones are castrated at the age of three or four years by Bhils and Mangs by pounding the testicles with a jowar pestle. Previously, castration was done by this open method but with the introduction of Burdizzor castrator by the Veterinary Department, this operation is being done by the Veterinary Assistant Surgeons by crushing the cord with the help of the Burdizzor castrators at the various veterinary dispensaries opened by the Department. The operation is simple and the work is perfect. It is also bloodless and painless. Naturally, it has gained much popularity.

The price of a pair of bullocks ranges from Rs. 600 to Rs. 1,400 according to the size, confirmation, appearance, etc., of the animals. The price of studbull ranges from Rs. 500 to Rs. 800. The price of local cow is between Rs. 150 and Rs. 250. Hariana and Hissar breeds of cows fetch a price of Rs. 500 per head.

The staple food for cattle and buffaloes consists of the stalks of jowar known as *kadbi* and grass in the culturable waste land and pasture land attached in each village, supplemented by the grazing facilities available in forest areas. The paddy straw, chaff of wheat, Jowar, remnants of groundnut, urad, moong, gram and tur are also fed to the cattle as fodder. Residue of pulses is fed to cattle mixed with a little of common salt. In Burhanpur area where in the neighbouring forests the hard *wickia binata* is in abundance, the leaves known as *anjanpala* are fed to cattle and goats. They are sold at Rs. 2 per maund. As the District is situated in the jowar-cotton zone of the State the cattle enjoy the highest amount of roughage and concentrates. Cotton seed is given to the cattle and buffaloes while in milk. Cattle are usually sent for grazing in Reserved forests in the rainy season. Plough cattle are rarely sent to the forests and are stall-fed. Cattle from distant villages are sent on *gowari* (cattle camps) in several forest ranges. However, the area devoted to the cultivation of fodder crops is insignificant being only 156 acres in 1962-63.

A few persons sow jowar crop for fodder, others sow the seed in plenty so as to increase the number of plants. The plants are then thinned by cutting and fed to cattle. In this way the vigour of the plants is increased as also the size of the cobs. In good soils jowar crop is raised exclusively for coin.

Lately, as a result of the propaganda made by the Veterinary Department and specially of the Block personnel, the people are taking to nutritious and high yielding grasses to feed their Livestock, e g., Berseem, Lucerne, etc. Perennial grasses like Napier and Para, which can be had during the months of September and October, are also being popularized. Efforts are also being made for popularising the preservation of fodder and grasses in the form of silage. Gram panchayats, service co-operatives and selected farmers are encouraged to conserve in silo-pits the surplus nutritive grasses produced in flush seasons.

Dairy Farming

There is no Government dairy either at Khandwa or at Burhanpur, the two big towns of this District. Milk is supplied to the Khandwa town by the small sized private dairies, Gaolis and other individuals of the town and neighbouring villages. On an average about 5,690 litres of milk per day is received by the town from the above sources. At Burhanpur there is one private dairy farm of medium size and 20 other small dairies which, besides a number of individuals of the town and villages like, Asir, supply more than 4,690 litres of milk to the people of Burhanpur. Pasteurisation of milk is not done in any of these dairies.

A Co-operative Milk Union under the name of Nimar District Co-operative Milk Union has been formed with head-quarters at Khandwa since February 1965. The registration of this Union is still awaited. At present the Union is collecting and distributing about 34 litres of milk per day and it is expected that by August, 1965, the quantity of milk handled by it will increase to 200 litres per day. This Union will function on the lines of Kaira Milk Union in Gujarat State. Milk producers co-operative societies will be formed in villages or in groups of villages throughout the District where daily collection of at least 120 to 200 litres of milk is assured. The aim of the Union is to collect and distribute about 5,000 litres of milk per day. After full development of the Union, this target may be increased to at least, 10,000 litres of milk daily at Khandwa and Burhanpur.

Gaushalas

There are two Government subsidised *Gaushalas* working in the District, the Ganesh Gaushala, Khandwa, and the Gaurakshana Sanstha, Burhanpur. The former is maintaining Nimari breed of cattle and the latter Gir breed of cattle. The object is to maintain pure breed, to produce more milk and to give demonstration to the people as to how to keep and develop good cattle.

Sheep Breeding

At the time of the Settlement of 1868-69 sheep were not bred in East Nimar District. Now sheep are principally reared in Burhanpur Tahsil in the vicinity of Burhanpur and Khakner. The rearing has become a hereditary profession of the Dhangars. Shearing of wool is done twice a year and about ½ seer of wool per shearing per animal is obtained. Now the Dhangars are being encouraged to upgrade their stock with the help of improved rams so as to get better yield of wool both in quantity and quality. Sheep which numbered 13,173 in 1940, showed steep decline in the three subsequent censuses. However, there was recovery in 1961 when sheep numbered 10,688.

Goat Breeding

Goats are bred in large number by Gaolis, Mohammadans and Bharurs for production of milk and meat. Milk of goat is not usually used for drinking but Gaolis and Mohammadans do utilise it for drinking purposes. The abundance of *babul*, *khair* (catechu) trees and other prickly shrubs on the higher and uncultivable

lands, furnish the flocks with convenient brousing and their presence in the village is largely coveted by the cultivators on account of the large supply of rich manure which they leave. Goats are most numerous after cattle and buffaloes in the District, and were about seven times in number than sheep in 1961. Goats numbered 48,194 in 1940, decreased slightly in 1945 and 1951 and then stood at about 77,000 in the following censuses.

Poultry Farming

The poultry farming is practised throughout the District by individuals. Specially, the people at Burhanpur and of neighbouring villages are more interested in poultry and some of them have improved their flocks by introducing blood from White Leghorn birds.

The number of poultry including that of ducks was 82,714 as per Census of 1961. The majority of the fowls is *deshi*, only 0.5 per cent being enumerated as improved. White Leghorn has been found to be suitable and was introduced in the District in the year 1941. To give impetus to this industry, Government have established a poultry unit at Harsud Veterinary Hospital which keeps White Leghorn birds. The eggs produced in these units are sold to the interested poultry breeders for hatching purposes so that improved birds may be produced in the interior. Cockerels are also sold to the interested persons to improve their flocks of birds.

One Poultry Extension Centre is working at Khandwa with the object of supplying hatching eggs, birds for backyard poultry units and cockerels on exchange basis. In 1962, it had 100 laying White Leghorn birds. In June, 1965, their strength had been raised to 200, which is further expected to go up to 500 by the end of the Third Five Year Plan.

Measures to Improve Quality of Breed

The credit of maintaining excellence of pure breeds of cattle, in a large measure goes to the professional cattle-breeders usually nomadic.

In East-Nimar, in recent years, the credit of propagating pure breeds of cattle goes to Berekar family of Rampura and Kikabhai Seth of Bhamgarh who took to maintaining and propagating true Nimari breed in their villages about 50 years back. Their efforts languished in the absence of State support and later key village centres were started in that region.

Key Village Centres

To bring about an all-round improvement of cattle by grading up non-descript stock of cattle the State Government formulated the "Key Village Scheme" in 1946. The Scheme provided for the establishment of Key Village Centres in the Districts. This Scheme has been in operation in this District since 1947. Till 1962, eight Key Village Centres were established in different parts of the District where

breeding bulls of well-bred Nimari breed are kept. These Key Village Centres are at Rampura, Singot, Bothia, Singajee, Jawar, Chapora, Sihada and Shahpur.

Cattle Breeding Extension Units

The Veterinary and Development Departments have established five Cattle Breeding Extension Units in the District at Rajoor, Mundi, Mohana, Punasa and Khakner. These Units have Nimari cow-bulls and Murrah buffalow-bulls for improving the local cattle breed.

Artificial Insemination Centres

For improving the local cattle breed an Artificial Insemination Centre was opened at Khandwa Veterinary Hospital in 1958-59 where semen is collected from Nimari cow-bulls and Murrah buffaloes for use at the Centre and for supply to two artificial insemination units established by the Veterinary Department at Borgaon and Burhanpur and four units established in Block areas at Harsud, Shahpur, Khalwa and Pandhana till June, 1965. A proposal is under active consideration of the Government for raising this Centre from the State pattern to all India pattern by attaching six to 10 Key Villages to it during the Fourth Plan period. Then this Centre will also maintain Gir cow-bulls for development of milch cattle. The Key Villages will have Nimari bulls as per breeding policy of the State.

Quarantine Station

Since 1936, a quarantine station has been located at Mortakka, a village bordering the erstwhile Holkar State. The work of the Veterinary Assistant Surgeon posted at this station was to check all incoming animals from outside the State, vaccinate them against rinderpest and realise the prescribed fee from the owners. This measure had helped much in minimising the appearance of rinderpest in the District. After the boundaries of the States were redrawn in 1956, the station outlived its importance and was closed on the 7th July, 1965.

Cattle Fairs and Markets

Cattle fairs are annually held at three places in the District, where thousands of animals are sold and purchased. Singaji fair held in Harsud Tahsil is the most important. Started in the memory of Singaji Babaji a Gwala by caste, who lived some 300 years ago in the village, now known by his name. it has developed into the biggest cattle fair of the District and one of the biggest of the whole State. Besides the Nimari breed which is the habitant of the District, cattle of Malvi and Gir breeds are also brought from Malwa, Rajasthan and Khargone for sale. Purchasers from far off regions, like Khandesh, Berar and also from adjacent districts assemble at the fair. The sale proceeds of cattle are over Rs. two million. It lasts for 10 days from the second day of Dashehra. The second is the religious fair held at Mandhata from Kartika Purnima for seven days where cattle are also transacted in large numbers The third place where a small cattle fair is held is Malegaon in Harsud Tahsil. It takes place in the month of January in the memory

of Pir Baba. As regards the cattle markets, Khandwa is the only town where a big cattle market is held on every Sunday in this District. A weekly cattle market is also held at village Pandhana.

Animal Diseases

The common contagious diseases prevalent in this District are (1) *rinderpest* (*mata*), (2) foot and mouth (*khurha*), (3) haemorrhagic septicaemia (*galphula* or *ghatsarp*), (4) black-quarter (*aktangia*) and (5) anthrax (*chhad*). Besides, there are some other diseases which are commonly known as (1) *bhura* or *surra*, (2) *kolka*, a kind of rheumatism, (3) *mundri* (the disease of the tail), (4) *lahoorkharal* (disease of the horns resulting. in discharge of blood or cancer of horn), (5) *chandni* or tetanus, (6) *bhoiloten* or colic in horse and mules, and (7) Liver disease.

As rinderpest is the most deadly cattle disease, Rinderpest Eradication Programme was carried out in the District during September, 1959, to January, 1961. Out of the total 1,472 villages in the District, 773 were covered by the end of the 30th September, 1960. Follow-up work commenced from September, 1962.

Sometimes liver disease and helminth infection are noticed in sheep and goats. Occasionally, they get infection of foot diseases. Poultry is susceptible to Ranikhet disease, fowl pox, etc.

Veterinary Hospitals

In the year 1964-65 there were following veterinary institutions in the District started by four different agencies:

(1) Four veterinary hospitals were being run in the District, two under the Municipal Councils at Khandwa since 1905 and at Burhanpur since 1908, one at Harsud since 1913 initially under local Board and District Council and then under Janapada Sabha, Harsud, and the fourth at Punasa since 1955 under Janapada Sabha, Khandwa. Out of these, the Khandwa Veterinary Hospital has been taken over by the Veterinary Department since November, 1962.

(2) With a view to catering to the veterinary needs of outlying areas, Outlying Veterinary Dispensaries have been started by the Veterinary Department in collaboration with the Janapada Sabhas on 50:50 basis. They are fully managed by the Department. These are distributed as under.—

Khandwa Tahsil	:	Mundi
Burhanpur Tahsil	:	Dedtalai, Shival, Hyderpur.
Harsud Tahsil	:	Jabgaon, Rajoor.

(3) Under Plan budgets two hospitals have been established at Borgaon (1961-62) and Mundi (1964-65), since transferred to Sulgaon, and one Veterinary Dispensary at Singot (1964-65). A mobile veterinary dispensary has been established at Khandwa.

(4) Institutions Started by Development Blocks.—Under Block sector veterinary hospitals have been established at Block headquarters and outlying dispensaries at remote places in the Blocks as under.—

	Block	Veterinary Hospital	Veterinary Dispensary
1.	Khandwa	Jawar	Bhamgarh Kalmukhi
2.	Punasa	—	Mohna
3.	Chhegaon Makhan	Chhegaon	—
4.	Burhanpur	Shahpur	Bodarli
5.	Pandhana	Pandhana	Gudikheda
6.	Khaknar	Khaknar	—
7.	Khalwa	Khalwa	Kharkalan
8.	Harsud	—	Bothia
9.	Baldi	Baldi	—

FISHERIES

Fish fauna of the District comprises some of the important varieties of food fishes, viz., *Catla catla; Labeo rohita, Labeo calbasu, Cirrhina mrigala, Barbus tor, Ophiocephalus marulius, Ophiocephalus striatus, Clarias batrachus, Heteropneustes fossilis, Eel* and *Wallago attu* etc.

Of all the varieties mentioned above the principal corps, viz., *Catla Catla; Labeo rohita; Labeo calbasu* and *Cirrhina mrigala* are regarded as best varieties for culture. These four main varieties spawn in rivers, streams and big reservoirs from July to August.

In order to develop the promising industry of fisheries the State Government had passed the Central Provinces and Berar Fisheries Act, VIII of 1948. It aimed at checking the indiscriminate catching of fish and distribution of their fry and fingerlings and provided for unhindered movement of fish to their spawning grounds during the breeding season and deeper parts of rivers in late monsoon for feeding purposes.

The Narmada in parts of the East Nimar District offers rich fishing grounds which have been rendered unproductive by unsystematic exploitation. The Tapti flowing through this District, also provides excellent waters for fishing. The fishes of both these rivers have been well-known. Some of the tributaries of these two major rivers too are good for fishing. Besides these, tanks can be developed profitably by proper stocking. The facilities indicate that there are immense possibilities of fishery development on modern lines, in this District.

Fishing industry in the District is but of recent origin. The work of pisci culture in the District was first entrusted to the Assistant Fisheries Development

Officer, West Nimar, with his headquarters at Khargone in the year 1957-58. The fishery development programme was first initiated in the reservoir at Punasa, located in the Punasa National Extension Service Block. It was stocked with 50,000 fish seeds of the five important carp varieties. Subsequently, tanks in Asirgarh fort were utilised for this work But these sources did not yield satisfactory results hence they were given up.

Further, the seed was stocked in a nursery pond at Khandwa for rearing purposes. A programme for the development of pisci culture and the allied work was drawn up and as a necessity State Government shifted the head-quarters of the Assistant Fisheries Development Officer to Khandwa from 1958. Since then work of stocking of fish-seed and its extraction is being conducted at Moghat reservoir acquired on lease from the Municipal Council of Khandwa. With a view to improving the industry and the economic conditions of the fishermen, one Fishermen's Co-operative Society with a membership of 13 has been formed at Khandwa, during the year 1962-63.

FORESTRY

As stated earlier, the total area of the District is 4131.84 sq. miles. Of this total area, 1822.67 sq. miles have been occupied by the forests giving a percentage of 44. Besides, the Revenue Department controls about 212 sq. miles of forest area. When this forest area is also taken into account the percentage of the area covered by the forests to total area of the District increases to 49. The Division-wise distribution of the forest area of the District under the management of the Forest Department is given below.—

	Forest Area (in sq. miles)	
	Reserved	Protected
North Khandwa Division	672	75.51
South Khandwa Division	890.08	80.28
Nepanagar Plantation Division	104.80	00 00
	1,666.88	155.79

The forests of the District are one of the most important and major sources of revenue and raw materials required by some of the important industries like newsprint, *bidi*-manufacturing and charcoal. Naturally, these forests play a vital role in the economy of the District.

Forest Produce

The forest produce is broadly divided into major and minor. Timber, firewood and charcoal are included in major forest produce while the rest comprises minor forest produce. Volume and value of forest produce of the Nimar Forest Division can be seen in Appendix—A.

Major Forest Produce

Timber has been the most important and major forest produce of the District. The teak is the only timber species which is saleable everywhere and in all sizes down to 12" in girth. It commands keen local demand and is exported to Indore, Khirkiya and Sanawad within the State and to Khandesh and Berar outside the State. The main exporting centres are Khandwa, Burhanpur, Harsud and Bir. The main timber markets are located at Khandwa, Mundi and Sulgaon. Other local markets for timber and fuel are Bir, Harsud, Burhanpur, Attar and Kherighat. Of the soft woods, the most important is *salai*. Formerly, it was considered a valueless wood, but recent researches have established that it can be profitably used for making mechanical pulp for the manufacture of newsprint. This wood is now consumed by the National Newsprint and Paper Mills which have been working under State management at Nepa Nagar, 40 miles from Khandwa. The annual consumption of *salai* wood is above 30 thousand tons. Demand for the poles of *saj*, *khair*, *dhaura*, *tendu* and *anjan* is small. Other wood species of high calorific value are burnt for charcoal which is exported to even distant places like Bombay.

Wood-fuel

This is readily saleable in the highly cultivated tracts of all the tahsils in the District and also a few other forest areas situated near Railway Stations. Almost every species is used as fuel, *khair* and *dhaura* being the most favoured and *salai*, *palas* and *bahera* the least, though at present due to brisk demand for this commodity such a distinction has almost vanished. Wood-fuel from the southern forest range goes to Jalgaon, Bhusawal and Berar. In many areas of the forests dry wood-fuel no longer exists and rated pass holders tend to abuse the privilege by felling green fuel and allowing it to remain to dry and then to remove it as dry fuel.

Minor Forest Produce

Monetary value apart, the so called minor forest products are of very considerable economic value to the agricultural population of the District. The important minor forest products of the District are as under—

(1) Grass and Grazing

The bulk of the cattle depends for their requirements of fodder on the forests and waste lands, as stall-feeding is not widely practised in the District. Grazing is allowed in the Reserved forests at nominal and concessional rates.

(2) Tendu Leaves

These leaves have been feeding the growing industry of *bidi* manufacture of this District

(3) Bamboos

This is one of the most important minor forest products which is used for a variety of purposes, namely, for agricultural implements, roofing, walling,

basket-making and manufacture of paper. Its pulp along with the pulp of *salai* wood is used by the Nepa Mills. Besides, bamboos are floated down the Narmada, i.e., from Kherighat to Maheshwar and Mandleshwar.

(4) Rusa Oil

Another important forest product of the District is palmarosa oil obtained from *rusa* or *tikari* grass of the *motia* variety. On distillation this oil gives geraniol which is the most important base in the manufacture of perfumes.

Revenue and Expenditure

The revenue derived from the forests ranks second only to land revenue and, therefore, the contribution of forests to the State exchequer is very valuable. The statistics of revenue and expenditure of Nimar Forest Division are given in Appendix—A.

Measures to Secure Scientific Exploitation and Development

The Reserved forests of the District have been treated under the prescriptions of the sanctioned Working Plans since 1896. These Working Plans were revised from time to time in the light of researches carried out and experience gained. This has resulted in the improvement of soil and climatic conditions and has further secured progressively increasing yield of the forest produce.

Research

A Research Station extending over an area of 15 acres is situated at Chimnapur. Originally started as a nursery by the Nepa Mills, it was subsequently handed over to the Forest Department on the 7th June, 1955. It is intended to carry out various experiments concerning artificial and natural regeneration of various soft wood species, i.e., *salai*, *maharukh*, *baranga* and *palas* suitable for the manufacture of mechanical pulp. An important experiment relates to the planting of eucalyptus trees. Experimental plots are also laid out in the forests. All these research projects are being carried on under the technical directions of the State Silviculturist.

Plantations

Consequent upon the establishment of the National News Print and Paper Mills at Nepanagar in the year 1947, the necessity of ensuring supplies of raw materials for paper pulp, on sustained basis in perpetuity, made it obligatory to raise large-scale plantations of pulp-woods species, such as, *salai*, *maharukh*, *baranga*, *phansi*, *mojan*, etc. Originally, it was intended that the plantations would be raised by the Nepa Mills themselves in areas allotted to the Plantation Working Circle and they started raising plantations in the year 1949. Upto 1953, they had attempted 200 acres. But for want of technical staff and labour the Mills transferred this work to the Forest Department. The annual pulp-wood requirements of the Mill have been estimated at about 30,000 tons. From the year 1957 onwards, plantations over an area of 1,500 acres, distributed in 10 centres of 150

acres each are being attempted annually. This programme is expected to meet the soft wood demands of the Mills in full. Since January, 1965, Nepa Soil Survey Division has been formed with a view to carrying out soil survey of the District. This will enable the location of suitable tracts where plantations of tree species suitable to the wood pulp requirements of Nepa Mills can be raised.

Teak Plantations

Teak is the most valuable tree found in the District. Attempts are, therefore, being made to raise teak plantations. The following figures give an account of the teak plantation activity in recent years.—

Forest Range	Year	Area (in acres)	Species
Punasa	1959-60	53½	Teak
	1960-61	26½	,,
	1961-62	22	,,
	1961-62	1	Kaju
Chandgarh	1961-62	10	Teak
Singaji	1960-61	15	,,
	1961-62	20	,,
West Kalibhit	1956-57	6	,,
	1957-58	25	,,
	1958-59	25	,,
	1959-60	25	,,
	1960-61	25	,,
East Kalibhit	1961-62	10	,,
	1962-63	10	,,
Khandwa	1959-60	9	,,
	1960-61	11	,,
	1961-62	19	,,
Road side Plantations	1961-62	2½ miles	Different species

STATE ASSISTANCE TO AGRICULTURE

Financial assistance is available to the cultivators of the District under the two Acts—Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883, and Agriculturists' Loans Act, 1884.

Loans under the former Act are intended to encourage the improvement of agricultural land and need not in principle be restricted either to poorer cultivators or to the time of distress. Improvement includes construction of wells, tanks or other works for the storage, supply or distribution of water for purposes of agriculture, preparation of land for irrigation and drainage, reclamation, protection from floods and erosion, clearance, enclosure or permanent improvement of land.

Loans under the latter Act are meant primarily to relieve distress and assist the poorer cultivators in financing their agricultural operations, viz., loans for the purchase of seed, fertilizer and cattle.

With the Grow More Food Campaign there has been a shift of emphasis from the protective to the productive aspect of *taccavi*. Grow More Food *taccavi* is also distributed under the two Acts already referred to. To popularize the schemes of loans under Grow More Food Schemes and to give an incentive to the cultivators for making improvement in their lands, a part of the loan, usually one-fifth, is granted as subsidy to the borrower provided the amount is properly utilized and conditions attached to the loan are fulfilled. Now, Development *taccavi* is also being distributed by the Blocks and is adjusted under the two aforesaid Acts. *Taccavi* advances from the year 1956-57 to 1960-61 are shown in Appendix—A.

FAMINES AND DROUGHTS

No part of the District is secure from failure of crops as the average rainfall is low, major portion of the soil is poor and irrigation facilities are meagre. But it is worth mentioning that the past history of at least a Century and a half, for which reliable accounts are available, clearly points out that it requires a year of extraordinarily short rainfall to cause a complete failure of crops creating famine conditions in the District. The principal danger generally lies in total withdrawal of rains in the months of September and October when moisture is essential for the maturity of *kharif* crops and for sowing of *rabi* crops. Harsud Tahsil constitutes the most precarious portion of the District on account of the shallow nature of the soils there. The District, in general, has witnessed some scascity years but only a few years of famine during this long period.

Famine of 1803

Climatic conditions and political disturbances caused the District to face the earliest known famine in 1803 A.D Failure of rains in that year resulted in the famine which prevailed more or less throughout the Deccan. This terrible famine devastated the five parganas of the Tapti valley. Equally important were the devastations caused by the Holkar's invading army and Sindhia's army amassed in defence. The famine, came to be known as "Mahakal", when grain was sold at 1 lb. per rupee or about two or three hundred times its price in seasons of prosperity.[1]

Famines of 1833 and 1845

As already stated the British power had obtained control of the major part of the District by the year 1824-25. It is an admitted fact[2] that the administration of the District for the first twenty years (1824-44) by the British power was marred by the grievous revenue exactions The rulers did nothing to ameliorate the conditions in the District. It was ravaged in all directions till it reached the point of ruin. The British rule "reaped without sowing" and "in exacting the rights of property ' it conveniently" "forgot its duties." With a "minimum of material," it ' sought a maximum of income." During this period of two decades, the District

1. The Imperial Gazetteer of India, Vol. X, p. 62.
2. Reports on the Province of Nimar, 1855, pp. 60-63.

had twice to face the grim battle for existence. Two famine years 1833 and 1845 were the product of total neglect, over-taxation and bad seasons.

People of the District, whose resources were already exhausted had to face a severe dearth amounting almost to famine in the year 1833. Excessive rain followed by drought resulted in almost total failure of crops. Prices of foodgrains soared high. Foodgrains were imported from the neighbouring Khandesh region. which enjoyed a good harvest. The District was neglected and thus was exposed to extreme suffering from a partial drought which under a better administration would have been but a temporary phase of inconvenience.

After 12 years again the people of this District were put to test. In 1845 they were placed under the most distressed circumstances, when they suffered from two consecutive exceedingly bad seasons. Very scanty rains in 1844 and almost total failure of rains in 1845 caused a severe famine in the District. To add fuel to the fire, the epidemic of cholera appeared and took a toll of above 1,000 persons The famine conditions and the epidemic brought about desertion of 809 villages of the District. The drought destroyed nearly 20,000 mango and *mahua* trees in 1844-45. Relief was provided by starting public works, such as, repairs and construction of old and new wells, dams, tanks and roads. Gwalior and Indore Darbars too came to the rescue of the people and enabled them to tide over a period of great privation and misery The famine left behind a trail of despair and fear, a residue of uncertainty and bleak prospects for the future. Revenue Settlement of 1839 proved hopelessly unfortunate and broke down in the year 1845. The mistake of raising revenue to a high pitch was realised by this year and from 1846 moderate assessments were imposed The revenue management of the District was taken over by the Government of the North Western Provinces. Twenty years' mismanagement ended, and conditions of the District began to improve.

Famine of 1845 was followed by a period of gradual prosperity broken only by the failure of the crops in 1886-87 when the out-turn was nearly half that of the normal. Between 1892 and 1896, while the greater part of the Province suffered from a disastrous succession of bad seasons, Nimar enjoyed moderate or fair harvests.

Scarcity of 1897

In 1896 there was an early withdrawal of rains but staple crops of the District are those most capable of resisting drought and as such did not entirely succumb and gave combined out-turn of 60 per cent of the normal Harsud Tahsil was the most affected part of the District. Weaver community of Burhanpur was in distress created by decreased demand for its cloth. In addition to agricultural depression the year was Simhastha when marriage ceremonies are prohibited by Hindu Dharmashastras However, a terrible fire which broke out on the 20th April, 1897, in Mohalla Lohar Mandi at Burhanpur proved a boon to the weavers and labourers. It broke out at noon and was extinguished in the midnight des-

troying a business locality of the town. Much of the cloth stored by the dealers was consumed by the fire and weaver community could thus obtain work. The labour class was employed in the work of rebuilding. Construction of a road from Khandwa to Moghat and repairs to old tank at Punasa were undertaken as relief measures. Starving Korkus of Harsud Tahsil were fed in kitchens opened in the rainy season. The mortality for 1897 was 43 per mille. Jowar sold at between eight and nine seers to the rupee from March to October, 1897. Expenditure on relief measures was only Rs. 50,000 and the number of persons on relief was nearly 4,000.

Famine of 1900

In 1899 the District registered an annual rainfall of only 10" while Khandwa received a little more than eight inches of rainfall as against the average of 32" for the District. Crops failed miserably. Staple food crops of jowar and kodo kutki entirely succumbed while tur, cotton and til harvests were only a quarter of the normal. Famine was tided over at a very heavy cost in human lives and human suffering. The rate of mortality was 92 per mille. The history of the famine is a grim tragedy. Relief measures in the form of construction of roads, repairs to old tanks, roads and railway embankment, construction of a high level feeder canal for the Moghat reservoir were introduced. The reservoirs called Mul Bhandara and Chintanaran at Burhanpur were connected by a canal with the main water works and an aqueduct was laid from Shakartalao for carrying water to Burhanpur. Six *ryotwari* villages were established between Burhanpur and Dhertalai after clearing the existing forest. Operations of cutting and exporting the grass and fuel from the forests were undertaken which yielded the net amount of Rs. 20,000. Relief to the distressed community of weavers of Burhanpur was given by undertaking various measures. Kitchens were started on a large scale for distributing food to the people from February, 1900. In August, 1900, there were about 108 kitchens for food distribution for nearly 73,000 people. The highest number relieved was 89,000 or 31 per cent of the population in August, 1900. Relief measures lasted from September, 1899, to November, 1900, and cost nearly Rs. 18 lakhs. Two lakhs of rupees were given in the form of loans and charitable grants. Land revenue amounting to Rs. 1¼ lakhs was suspended. Price of jowar during the famine period was at about 8½ seers to a rupee. During the period of famine the District was swarmed by large bands of starving wanderers from adjoining Khandesh and Indore territories in search of work and food. Their physical condition being worse the mortality among them was greater. Water scarcity of severe nature resulting from abnormally short rainfall was also greatly responsible for heavy mortality noticed during the period. This was the worst and last famine in this District.

Scarcities

Since 1901 famine became a thing of the past and the District witnessed extension of cultivation. There have been repeated failures of crops in different years resulting in declaration of scarcity but none of them caused serious disloca-

tion of civil life or death and distress as was the case in the past. In some years crops in the District failed miserably on account of short and untimely rains but no famine conditions were created by them. In fact, famine has now become the thing of the past. This has become possible mainly due to development in the means of transport and communication, extension of cultivation and irrigation facilities.

CHAPTER V

INDUSTRIES

Old time Industries

Cotton Textiles—As early as the 16th Century A.D. the Burhanpur region which formed part of Subah Dandes or Khandesh of the empire of Akbar had been famous for the manufacture of cotton textiles references to which are found in the celebrated Ain-i-Akbari and in the itinerary of the Frenchman Jean Baptiste Tavernier who was one of the most renowned travellers, visited India in the 17th Century.

Referring to Burhanpur Abul Fazl wrote "It is inhabited by people of all countries and handicraftsmen ply a thriving trade",[1] and that "Good cloth stuffs are woven here".[2] However, it is the references in the book by Tavernier "Travels in India", which conveys the fuller idea of the glorious past of textile and other allied industries in the Burhanpur region. He wrote that "There is a large trade in this town, and both at Burhanpur itself and in all the province an enoromous quantity of very transparent muslins are made, which are exported to Persia, Turkey, Muscovie, Poland, Arabia, Grand Cairo and other places. Some of these are dyed various colours and with flowers, and women make veils and scarfs of them; they also serve for the covers of beds, and for handkerchiefs, such as we see in Europe with those who take snuff. There are other fabrics, which they allow to remain white, with a stripe or two of gold or sliver the whole length of the piece, and at each of the ends from the breadth of one inch upto twelve or fifteen—in some more, and in others less—it is a tissue of gold, silver, and of silk with flowers, whereof there is no reverse, one side being as beautiful as the other... Some of these fabrics are all banded, half-cotton and half-gold or silver, and such pieces are called *ornis*. They contain from fifteen to twenty ells, and cost from one hundred to one hundred and fifty rupees, the cheapest being not under ten or twelve. Those which are only about two ells long serve ladies of rank for the purpose of making scarfs and the veils which they wear on their heads, and they are sold in abundance in Persia and in Turkey. They make, besides, at Burhanpur other kinds of fabrics, and there is hardly another province in the whole of India which has a greater abundance of cotton".[3] This was then a glorious tribute paid by a foreigner to the old cotton

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1. Ain-i-Akbari, tr. by Jarret, Vol. II, p. 223.
2. Ibid, p. 223.
3. Jean Baptiste Tavernier, Travels in India, tr. by Ball, pp. 51-52

textile industry of the Burhanpur region. In this single extract one finds references at least to three different old time industries, viz., cotton textiles, silk textiles, dyeing, gold and silver thread making, the fineness and finish of the product as also the variety and extent of the market for the produce.

Silk Textiles

About the old time silk industry in the District, Dewar in his "Monograph on the Silk Industry of the Central Provinces", wrote that, "In Nimar District the silk industry is mated with another more unique and more famous, the manufacture of gold and silver thread, which is woven into silk cloths. The combind industry is a peculiarly oriental one. As a matter of course it has like the making of hand-made lace in Europe, suffered in these days of excellent machinery and practical economy. Time was when the looms of Burhanpur were busy with elephant cloths, and royal robes and tapestries that were literally worth their weight in gold. Such are still preserved as heirlooms by native princes. But the glory has departed".....[1]

Some idea of richness and the variety of products can be had from the following "The chief fabrics still made in the city are *jeerec* a very rich light stuff; in which the flattened wire is interwoven with silk in the warp, with a thread woof, chiefly made up into *oorness* (scarves) and *sarees* worn by females on wedding and other high occasions. *Selaree* is half-silk and half-thread with brilliant edgings and borders of silk and gold thread, mostly in the form of *sarees* and *doputtas*. *Pitambar*, all silk with the same edging is a better sort of the same. Turbans, sashes, etc., are made in all these fabrics. The gold thread is also much woven up with silk into rich borders and edgings......The silk for these cloths is all imported. It is mostly from China, generally spun, and dyed in fast colours at Poona, a little however is spun in the city from the material imported raw. The cotton thread used is extremely fine, and is both English and made on the spot".[2] Certain quantity of raw-silk was also obtained from Murshidabad.

Gold and Silver Wire-Drawing

It can be seen from the above that in the cotton as well as silk textile products the gold and silver threads were freely used, which means the gold and silver wire-drawing was also one of the important industries. A detailed account of this industry and the process of wire-drawing is given in the following extract.

"The value of the fine fabrics depends mainly on the purity of the metals employed in the composition of the wire and to secure this the wire-drawing has always been kept under Government inspection. A hereditary tester called the *Chowkusee* received and arranged all the silver and gold brought to the *taxal* or mint (where the Boorhanpore rupee was also coined); and here the wire was

1. Nimar District Gazetteer, p 128.
2. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p. 233.

drawn out to a certain degree of fineness before being allowed to pass again into the hands of manufacturers"[1].......Besides Burhanpur there were reported to be three other centres in the neighbourhood where wire-drawing was carried on. When Burhanpur came under British Administration in December 1860, two of the four *taxals* i.e., mints, where wire-drawing used to be carried on were abolished and the wire-drawing was done at Burhanpur and Lodhipura, a suburb of the old city. The process of wire-drawing was as under.—

"The silver bars are covered with a thin gold leaf weighing from 4 to 42 *Mashas* (of 15 grains troy each) to each *passa*. The number of *Mashas* employed is called the *rung* (colour) of the wire, which thus varies from about ¼ to 6 per cent on the amount of the silver. The adhesion appears to be effected purely by mechanical skill on the part of the workmen called *passa tanias*. It is then passed by the same workmen through a series of holes in steel plates of diminishing size by manual power applied by means of a spoked wheel of the rudest construction. It is passed through 40 of these holes before it leaves the *taxal* and is then reduced to about the size of an ordinary sodawater wire. Thence it goes into the hands of another set of operators called *tanias* who still further reduce it through a gradation of 40 more holes, the last of which is as fine as a human hair......The round wire is then given to the *Chuppuryas* who flatten it into an almost impalpable film, by hammering between two polished steel surfaces, an operation requiring, it is said, superior skill. In this state it is termed *badulee* and is used for some few sorts of work. The greater part of it has however to be spun into thread along with silk, before being woven up. This is done by persons called *Bitayas*, who use no sort of apparatus for the purpose excepting a couple of wooden spindles twisted by the hand. Indeed the beauty of the result obtained by such primitive implements must strike everyone with amazement. The layer of gold on the finest wire must be of almost inconceivable tenuity; and yet such is its regularity that the silver never begins to show in any place till the fabric itself has worn out. The mixed thread is called *kalabuttoo*, which is woven into the *kinkobs* and other brilliant fabrics worn by rich natives on high occasions. It is partly exported as thread from Boorhanpore, and partly made into cloth in the city"[2].

It is worthy of note that the gold and silver thread manufactured by such crude methods as described above was not only used locally but was also exported, which indirectly points to the large extent of the manufacture of this industry.

Dyeing Industry

There are already references in the above extracts about the excellent art of dyeing cotton and silk fabrics. Tavernier referring to the transparent muslins

1. Ibid, p. 230.
2. Ibid, pp. 230-31.

of Burhanpur stated that "Some of these are dyed various colours and with flowers........ etc." Mention of "various colours" shows the extent of the development of this industry. There is a reason to believe that all the different dyes used in the textile manufacture, used to be prepared locally, especially from the dyeplants like "Al" (*Morinda citrifolia*), flowers of palas kusum (*Carthamus tinctorious*), dhaura and the barks of rohan, kheir etc. The "Al" was sown in the denuded *man* soil and its cultivation was a monopoly of the caste called Alias. The red dye-stuff used to be obtained from the roots of this plant and specially from the bark of the roots. The dye-stuffs obtained from different parts of dyeplants were used in order to obtain single or multi-coloured effects, latter by mixing different colours in certain proportions with each other to obtain variety of shades. All this required not only labour but also great skill in mixing different ingredients. On all evidence, the art of dyeing appears to have attained high excellence.

Other Industries

Other old time industries, besides those mentioned above were gold and silver ornaments the making of which was concentrated at Burhanpur and Khandwa. Gold and silver leaves were also prepared at Burhanpur. The leaves were used as a covering for sweets, cardamoms and betel leaves. Brass and copper vessels were also made at Piplod in the District. On a smaller scale, iron-boxes, cages, chains and locks were manufactured at Burhanpur. Wood-carving was also done here, specimens of which are found in the ceilings and pillars of some of the buildings. Wooden combs were made in considerable quantities from shisham wood (*Dalbergia latifolia*). Stick-lac was cleaned and melted into cakes in Burhanpur. Manufacture of glass from a particular variety of stone found in the Tapti river was also carried on and glass globes were prepared out of it, but in later years it was found cheaper to import glass in balls, and glass globes were made out of this imported glass. Bangle-making industry also existed in which broken globes were used for making bangles.

Manufacturing of paper by hand from the old paper rotted in water was also carried on at Zainabad near Burhanpur. Though the quality of this paper was rough it was durable and was used by bankers for their account books. In the year 1883-84 blotting-paper of a serviceable kind was made at Zainabad and orders were issued by the then Government that the offices should draw their supplies of blotting-paper from Zainabad instead of indenting on the Superintendent of Stationery, Bombay. At the beginning of the present century. however, the industry dwindled to insignificant proportions. Mention may also be made here of another old-time industry at Burhanpur, where the juice of tobacco was extracted by boiling the leaves and was then scented and made up into pills to be eaten with betel leaf.

Causes of Decline

From the account of the old time industries given above, two salient features of these industries arise, first, that these industries were mainly handi-

crafts and, secondly, there was a specialization of the product in the sense that the produce catered to the needs and tastes of that class of society which in course of time became extinct. In the earlier days it was the patronage of the royalty and nobility which not only sustained but also gave added impetus to the manufactures of these industries. Burhanpur was a seat of viceroyalty till it was transferred from Burhanpur to Aurangabad during the reign of Shah Jehan. This removal of the Court from Burhanpur might have deprived the industries of their patrons but from the account of Tavernier which relates to the 17th Century A. D., the industries in the region appear to have been in a prosperous condition. After the Mohammedan princes and nobles, the courts of Sindhia, and the Bhonsla Raja of Nagpur, were the great customers of the rich goods ; but in course of time they were also superseded by the Britishers. These alien rulers did not find it in their country's interest to patronize or propagate the indigenous industries of any kind. Cheap machine-made goods were introduced and forced upon the people all over India. The indigenous hand-made products bereft of any patronage or protection gave way to the large-scale and cheap machine-made products of all kinds These reasons of the decay of the old-time industries were not a peculiarity of a particular region, but were common all over the Country, and were the results of the deliberate policies pursued by the alien rulers. However, certain other circumstances were particular to the decline of industries in the region These industries were mostly located at Burhanpur, and the neighbourhood did not produce nearly enough food for its requirement or that of the city As such, nearly all the grain, gur, condiments, etc., used to be imported from considerable distances. The prices, therefore, ranged very high at Burhanpur. Besides, the materials like silk, silver and gold were brought from outside and the goods were taken to longer distances to the markets. All this increased the cost of manufacture of the goods at Burhanpur and the major industry of the region suffered in competition, as the Burhanpur stuff began to be produced elsewhere at Yeola, Poona, Ahmedabad, Benaras, etc., the places which were advantageously situated nearer to the big market centres. It will be significant here to quote the Political Assistant in Nimar, Captain P. T. French who wrote in 1846 thus "Those we found poor, have remained so and many of those that were otherwise, have become poor; no one here seems to have prospered under our rule. The manufacturer has been ruined, his industry found no protective laws, while that of steam, duty-free. drove him with all others to the plough. The imposts of Native Princes remained, but the absence of their expenditure all experienced.[1]" Causes of the decay of the industries cannot be more succintly put than this.

POPULATION DEPENDENT ON INDUSTRIES

As has been stated in the foregoing pages, cotton textiles, silk textiles, wire-drawing, dyeing, etc., were some of the important industies in the District. At the Census of 1866, the persons enumerated as silk-spinners, cloth-dyers, *kalabatu*-weavers, wire-drawers, wire-flatteners, *kalabatu* spinners, other weavers of coarse cloth

1. Report on the British Nimar District, 1846, p. 61.

and blanket-makers at Burhanpur proper and throughout the District numbered altogether 14,928 or 7½ per cent of the inhabitants of Nimar. "This however is exclusive of the numerous village servants, who employ part of their time in weaving, and of many women who spin thread[1]." It is likely, therefore, that the number of persons dependent on the textiles and allied industries was itself more than the 7½ per cent of recorded number.

The persons enumerated as "Makers or Dealers in Fabrics or Articles of Dress" at 1872 Census which included weavers, spinners in silk and cotton numbered 6,895 which was only 3.26 per cent of the total population of the District. i.e., 2,11,176. As the indigenous handloom industry was facing a cut-throat competition from the cheaper mill-made textiles from Manchester at this time, the persons engaged in this industry had to search for other means of livelihood, and it is likely that quite a number of persons from the weaver class became labourers on the construction work of railway line which was being extended from Burhanpur to Itarsi between the years 1866-72. The rates of wages were higher "in every district in which railway or other public works were begun[2]."

In the Census of 1891 the persons enumerated in the class "Textile Fabrics and Dress" which correspond to the 1872 class mentioned earlier, numbered 19,629. The percentage of population belonging to this class to total population of the District 28,6176 was 6.85. This percentage is on the higher side than that of 1872 Census. However, such percentages for different census periods are not comparable and conclusions on their basis are hazardous.

Coming to the beginning of the present Century. in the year 1901, the total population of the District was 3,27,173. The number of "actual workers" enumerated in the class "Preparation and Supply of Material Substances" was 40,149. In percentages it works out to 12.27 of the total population of the District. The number of 'actual workers" in the sub-class of "Textile Fabrics and Dress" was 14,034 which works out to 4.28 per cent of the total population, corresponding to 6.85 per cent of the 1891 Census.

From the Census of 1911 onwards the occupational class, viz., "Preparation and Supply of Material Substances" has been divided into a sub-class of "Industry." This has made the comparison possible from one census to another, though not exactly because of the changes in the economic status classification. On the basis of a Note on working force estimates given in Annexure I to 1961, Census Paper No. 1 of 1962, the number of "Workers" in industry in the District for different census years from 1911 to 1961 are given below:—

1 Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p. 236.
2. D. R. Gadgil, Industrial Revolution in India, p. 19.

Census year	Total population of the District	No. of "Workers"	Col. (3) as a percentage of Col. (2)
1	2	3	4
1911	3,91,071	31,926	8.16
1921	3,96,554	26,767	6.75
1931	4,66,931	24,613	5.27
1951	5,23,496	24,703	4.72
1961	6,85,150	34,658	5.06

From the figures above it is seen that the number of "workers" in industry is increasing in the District after 1931 but the percentage of "workers" in industry to the total population in the District is on the decrease with a slight improvement in the year 1961.

POWER

Hydro-electric possibilities of the District were never fully investigated under the British regime. Till the year 1918, no attention was paid to the question of providing hydro-electric power. The Indian Industrial Commission in their report stated that they "consider it necessary that Government should take in hand a systematic survey of the country to ascertain that hydro-electric possibilities exist, and that this should be started at *once*........................"[1] In accordance with the recommendation of the Commission, Government of India decided to start hydrographical survey. In the preliminary report, one site of this District figured, where the surveyors found promising hydro-electric possibilities. This site was on the Tapti river, near Burhanpur, where power generation of 15000-20000 K.W. was expected. The site was considered important and useful for developing textile industry of Berar. Further it "being close to the Bombay boundary, may be inter-connected with the proposed Bombay Grid extending supply upto Bhusawal and incidentally electrifying a considerable area in the province"[2]. But as a consequence of the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms, the Government of India decided in 1920 "that all outlay on water storage and water-power will be a provincial charge and the necessary provision for hydro-electric surveys should, therefore, be made in the provincial estimates from and after 1921-22." Nothing further, however, was done by the then Government in this direction. Thus, the recommendation of Indian Industrial Commission and consequent survey, and suggestions of preliminary report brought forth nothing.

Electricity at Khandwa

The history of generation and consumption of the electrical energy in this District dates back to the year 1923-24 when a scheme for the electrification of the town of Khandwa was first prepared and submitted for approval of the

1. Report of the Provincial Industries Committee, C.P, and Berar 1946, p. 16.
2. Ibid, p. 17.

Government by a local firm. Soon this licenced undertaking installed an electric generating plant at Khandwa. Since 1923-24 the Khandwa Electric Supply Company made a good progress. Number of consumers of electric power began to increase. In the next year, an additional plant and mains were installed by the undertaking in order to meet the growing demand of electrical energy. The Company also succeeded in introducing the use of electrical power in some ginning and pressing factories of the town. Again in the year 1928-29 the licenced undertaking had to double the capacity of its generating plant due to the rapid growth in demand for the supply of electrical energy. Total capacity of the plant was then 340 K.W. It supplied the energy to the railways also. This undertaking at Khandwa was taken over in 1955 by the Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board. The Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board undertaking started its function of supplying and distributing electrical energy from the 1st April, 1955. Figures regarding power generation and distribution from the year 1950 to 1958-59 are given in the Table below.—

Year	Capacity in K. W. of generating sets	Total No. of consumers	K. W. Hrs. sold in millions		
			Industrial power, low and medium voltage	Industrial power, high voltage	Bulk supply from Chandni Power Station
1950	645	964	0.050	—	—
1951	"	1,175	0.070	—	—
1952	"	1,249	0.064	—	—
1953	"	1,248	0.052	—	..
1954	"	N.A.	0.049	—	—
1955	—	—	—	—	—
1956	—	N.A.	0.241	0,143	1.250
1957-58	—	2,045	0.639	0.166	2.435
1958-59	—	N.A.	0.712	0.235	2.598

From the above Table it appears that power station at Khandwa ceased to be a power generating centre from the year 1955 and functioned as a distributing centre only for the power received from Chandni Power Station. By 1962-63 the supply of industrial power low and medium voltage had increased to 0.945 million K.W. Hrs.' and industrial power high voltage to 1.34 million K.W. Hrs.

Electricity at Burhanpur

In the year 1931, the Burhanpur Electric Supply and Trading Company was established at Burhanpur. Immediately in the years 1935-36 the Company prepared a scheme to introduce the use of electricity in rural areas around Burhanpur. But it was postponed for want of a guarantee from the agriculturists to take the supply for a definite number of years. The licenced undertaking at Burhanpur began to receive supply of electrical energy from the Chandni Thermal Station since May, 1953.

The installed capacity, the number of consumers of electricity and sale of power for industrial purposes for the years 1950 to 1958-59 is as under:—

Year	Capacity in K. W. of generating sets	Total No. of consumers	K. W. Hrs. sold in millions		
			Industrial power, low and medium voltage	Industrial power, high voltage	Bulk supply from Chandni power Station
1950	485	2,052	0.415	—	—
1951	"	2,154	0.429	—	—
1952	"	2,266	0.529	--	—
1953	"	N.A.	0.511	—	—
1954	530	2,515	0.749	—	1.892
1955	"	2,656	0 866	—	2.063
1956	415	2,823	1.018	—	2.399
1957-58	300	3,131	1.179	—	3.328
1958-59	..	N.A.	—	0.014	0.436

The steady increase in the number of consumers as well as sale of electricity as a motive power for industrial purposes is evident from the above Table. The power house began to receive steadily increasing supply of energy from Chandni Power Station from 1954. The Company till April, 1961 was acting as distributing agency of the energy received from Chandni Power House. In May, 1961 this undertaking was taken over by the Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board.

Thermal Station

The Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board have established a thermal power station at Chandni, in the District in the year 1953. The power station was equipped with three turbo-alternators of 5,000 K.W. each thus having an installed capacity of 15,000 K.W. This power station is adjacent to the National Newsprint and Paper Mills, which draws its power requirements from this station. In the year 1954 one back pressure turbine of 2,000 K.W. was added to the existing equipment, thus increasing the total capacity of the station to 17,000 K.W. Details of installed capacity, number of consumers and sale of energy for industrial uses from 1953 to 1958-59 are as under:—

Year	Capacity in K. W. of generating sets	Total No. of consumers	K. W. Hrs., sold in millions	
			Industrial Power, low and medium voltage	Industrial power, high voltage
1953	15,000	N.A.	..	..
1954	17,000	N.A.	0.494	4.068
1955	17,000	N.A.	1,094	11.652
1956	17,200	575	0.215	30.101
1957-58	17,400	625	0.016	30.726
1958-59	17,400	777	0.020	43.100

Supply of energy from the power station increased from 1.761 million K.W. Hrs., in 1954 to 12.499 million K.W. Hrs., in 1958-59. The supply of industrial power, low and medium voltage had increased to 0.025 million K.W. Hrs., and industrial power high voltage to 51.393 million K.W. Hrs., in the year 1962.

From the above figures, shift in the pattern of consumption of power for industrial purposes from low and medium voltage to high voltage becomes apparent, reflecting the growing need of industries for power. From this station the energy is transmitted to Khandwa and Burhanpur sub-stations through two transmission lines. At Khandwa the electrical energy is received from Chandni through a 33 KV transmission line of 38 miles length.

Electricity in Rural Areas

Under Rural Electrification and Lift Irrigation Schemes electricity is supplied to rural areas around Khandwa from sub-station at Khandwa. Burhanpur sub-station supplies energy to the rural areas around the town. During First Plan period Chandni Thermal Station could supply electricity to a limited extent and so there was not much of rural electrification in the District during that period. But during Second Five Year Plan period much progress was made in the District in rural electrification. Within this period of five years, 24 villages of the District were electrified. The names of the villages electrified by the end of the Second Plan period are Bahadarpur, Loni, Mohammadpura, Patunda, Shahpur, Dapora, Ichhapur, Rustampur, Piplod, Bhilkheda, Shinada, Badiatola, Sunderbel, Mathela, Palakna, Satwada, Sankheda, Badgaon, Malikutwada, Gujar, Sirpur, Tigria and Bamangaon.

Chandni Thermal Power Station is proposed to be fed by the Tawa and Chambal Projects. The District is being connected with Chambal Grid and in the Third Five Year Plan peroid places like Mandhata, Jawar, Arud, Mundhi, Pandhana, Barud, Haraswada are likely to be electrified.

Diesel Power Station

Apart from the energy generated and supplied by the Chandni Thermal Power Station, one diesel power station has been established at Harsud in the year 1957. The electricity generated there is supplied to Harsud. The Harsud Railway Station and Railway water pump draw their power supplies from this station. Total number of consumers at Harsud in 1957-58 was 129. In the year 1958-59 electricity generated was O. 062 million K.W. and the sale of industrial power low and medium voltage was O. 005 million K.W. Hrs.

Power potentialities of the District are likely to be augmented further by the construction of a dam on the river Narmada near Punasa. The dam to be constructed will be 1475′ in length and 312′ in height. The reservoir, on completion, would store 99 lacs cubic feet of water and generate 450,000 K.W. electrical energy. The reservoir in addition would irrigate 66,000 acres of agricultural land and the electricity

would also be provided to the surrounding regions within and outside the State. The project is of "crucial importance to the State and demands high priority".[1]

INDUSTRIES AND MANUFACTURES

Mining and Heavy Industries

In the District there are no minerals of any importance. There was, however, recorded a discovery of some haematite in the north-east of the District. Near Chandgarh, the deposit of this red ore was fairly rich, and was reported to have yielded as much as 63.4 per cent of iron. In the year 1854-55 Lieut. Col. A. Jacob, Assistant Engineer and Geologist B.B. and C.I. Railway Company, reported to the Agent for Central India that "Chandgarh, Candoot and the intervening country contain the richest ores I have met in India, and in the greatest profusion. The limestone is near Poonassa, but by making a fair weather road, crossing the Nerbudda at Sacur, where its breadth in cold weather is but 52 (fifty-two) feet, a sufficient quantity might be brougth over during low water season to last for the year. By this road I had, previously proposed that the iron should be brought from the north bank of the river to Poonassa".

"The finest timber for smelting purposes may be had in abundance at the mines and for many miles all around".

The above extract shows that the iron-ore near Chandgarh of Khandwa Tahsil was being mined and, with the availability of limestone near Punasa and of timber in the forests of the District, smelting of iron was also carried on. There is also a reference in the earlier Report of 1854 from the Agent for Central India, to the Secretary to Government of the North-West Province that "Iron is becoming a very attractive article in Nimar, and Poonassa promises to become the seat of its manufacture on an extensive scale, should the Baroda and and Malwa railway be finally determined upon. The arrangements to secure a supply of water at this rising location are, I think satisfactory".

As to why such a promising site and situation was not developed for iron-ore mining and smelting industries, there is nothing on record to show. There is a reference that in the year 1953-54 Major Keatings the then Political Assistant of Nimar, started an experiment on the iron-ore that existed in the forest some 14 miles away from Punasa. He employed 40 prisoners in making iron by indigenous methods and in an early stage six tons of iron was produced from the ore. The furnace used was of Indian pattern and the iron was beaten up under heavy tilt hammer. Establishment of small manufactory was also contemplated. All these plans for Punasa iron-ore mining and smelting industries seem to have been abandoned later when a more remunerative iron-ore was found at Barwah, then a part of this District. Besides this the iron-ore in the District being invariably

1. Techno Economic Survey of Madhya Pradesh. 1960, p. 117.

haematite there was no evidence that the ore existed in sufficient quantities to interest a modern smelter.

At Punasa deposits of dolomite exist. The stone is said to be much superior to pure limestone suitable for lithographic purposes.

Pottery clay in the Chandgarh forest reserve and building stone and gravel quarries are other minerals in the Disrict but not of any particular value.

Because of the paucity and non-existance of the valuable minerals like coal, as also the lack of power for industries, none of the heavy industries exist in the District.

Factory Industries

Cotton Ginning and Pressing

Introduction of the power driven process of manufacture in the District or what may be termed as a factory system of manufacture can be traced back to the policy of the British Government in the latter half of the 19th Century in respect of the cotton textile industry in India. The District was cultivating cotton in abundance upon which the old-time hand-ginning of cotton and hand-loom weaving industries thrived. The cotton and silk goods of India, were sold profitably in the British market at a price from 50 to 60 per cent lower than those manufactured in England. Therefore, prohibitive duties upto 70 to 80 per cent on the value of the Indian textiles entering the British market were levied. As against this, textiles manufactured at Manchester were allowed in India duty-free or with nominal duty only. In order to feed the textile mills in Britain, raw cotton was required in huge quantities and therefore, the cotton growing tracts like East Nimar and others in the Country having thriving centres of textile manufactures were turned into the centres supplying ginned and pressed cotton only. Thus in East Nimar District the beginning of steam-gins and steam-presses was made in the year 1890. The growth of this factory industry was favoured because of great increase in the prices of cotton, consequent upon an increase in the area sown under cotton as well as good cotton crop. In the year 1890-91 there were six gins and presses in the District which number had increased to 33 ginning and 11 cotton presses in the first few years of the present Century. Of the ginning factories ten were at Khandwa, seven at Burhanpur including Lalbag and the remaining in the interior. Six of the presses were at Khandwa, four at Burhanpur and one at Bagmar in the Khandwa Tahsil[1]. These factories worked seasonally from December to May, and employed 2,600 operatives in the year 1904.

At the beginning of the First World War, i.e., in 1914 there were 37 ginning and pressing factories in the District registered under the Factories Act, 1911. The number of units and average daily number of workers employed in these

1. Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 131

factory establishments for all the years of the First World War period were as under:—

Year	No. of ginning and pressing factories	Average No. of workers employed daily
1914	37	2,402
1915	38	2,945
1916	42	3,287
1917	46	2,809
1918	43	2.483

As stated earlier, the cotton ginning and pressing is a seasonal industry and its fortune is irrevocably linked with the boom and slump in cotton trade. As such, during the period 1920-28 which was one of boom, cotton fetched very high prices and the number of gins and presses in the District increased. In the year 1924 which was a mid-year of this boom period, there were 57 gins and presses in the District employing on an average 4,813 persons daily. "But with the setting-in of the slump, prices fell and acreage under cotton also dwindled and the ginning and pressing industry suffered a severe setback[1]". During the year 1930 the Chief Inspector of Factories of the Central Provinces and Berar, in his report on the administration of the Factories Act, 1911 reported a decrease in the number of factories registered under the Factories Act, by 74 for whole of the Province. "Of these, 67 were ginning and pressing factories................ Less cotton was produced and this, together with the system of pooling cotton-ginning and pressing factories in certain centres, was responsible to a large extent for the decrease"[2]. In the year 1935 "The decrease in the number of seasonal factories was mainly in ginning and pressing factories"[3]. The gins and presses accounted for a decrease in the number of persons employed for the Province by 2,855 workers. The reason for this was "Trade depression and closing down of certain factories"[4], i.e., gins and presses. Even so the number of cotton gins and presses in the District, in the year 1938, i.e., the year preceding the Second World War was 96.[5] However, by the end of this War in the year 1947, there were only 27 cotton gins and presses in the District registered under the Factories Act, 1934, providing employment to about 2,337 workers. In the year 1949 there were 33 cotton gins and presses in the District which employed 2,280 workers daily on an average. Because of the seasonal nature of the industry, there was no guarantee to the workers of the employment as well as wages. Therefore, the Government of erstwhile Madhya Pradesh afforded protection to the workers by fixing minimum wages in the industry as early as 1956 under the Minimum wages Act, 1948. There were 37

1. Report of the Provincial Industries Committee C.P. and Berar, 1941, p. 39.
2. Administration Report on Factories Act, 1930, p. 3.
3. Ibid, 1935, p. 3.
4. Ibid, p. 4.
5. Commercial Directory of C.P. and Berar, 1938. pp. 38, 39 and 40

gins and presses in the District in the year 1956, and 45 in 1957. In the year 1958 there were 39 gin and pressing factories, employing about 3,158 workers on an average daily. The number of units and average daily employment for the years 1959, 1960 and 1961 was as follows.—

Year	No. of gins and presses	No. of workers
1959	40	3,486
1960	39	3,337
1961	37	2,848
1962	37	2,781

Silk Mills

Along with cotton textiles, silk textiles was also a flourishing industry in the District in olden times and followed the same declining curve of existence, as that of cotton textiles from the earlier decades of the present Century. As such, there is only one silk factory in the District at present, viz., Baje Silk Works, Burhanpur, registered as a factory under the Factories Act, 1948. On an average this establishment employs 20 workers daily. However, there are also about a dozen silk spinning, weaving and reeling establishments in the District not coming under the purview of the Factories Act. These small establishments have about 13,000 spindles and 705 looms. One or two of these establishments weave silk saris and cloth, which are sent to Bombay for dyeing and marketed there.

Oil Mills

Beginning of the oil industry on a factory basis, appears to have been made in the District in the year, 1923. Oil mill as a factory registered under the Factories Act, 1911 first appears in this year. Such a venture became possible as groundnut is an important crop in the District, and cotton seed is readily available in considerable quantities from the ginning of cotton. The growth of this industry was in no way as rapid as in the case of cotton ginning and pressing factories. It was by the year 1947 that there were in all five factories in the District employing about 232 workers on an average daily which came under the purview of the Factories Act, 1934. The number of factories by 1960 remained only five. The largest single unit amongst these five is Shri Mansingka Oil Mills, Ltd., located at Khandwa. The factory was established in the year 1949. By 1961 it had a total productive capital (working plus fixed) of about Rs. 37.62 lakhs, and it provided employment to about 130 workers daily. The value of products manufactured in the factory, viz, different oils was of the order of Rs. 23 lakhs in the year 1959. In the year 1961 this oil mill was licensed under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951 to manufacture oil and oil-cake as well as vegetable oils and soaps with a capacity of 250 tons per day. The original capacity was only 100 tons per day. All the five factory units taken together provided employment to about 300 workers daily. Number of oil mills in 1962 remained the same. Four of the five factories are located at Khandwa and one at Burhanpur Besides these oil mills, there

are also Baby Expellers in the District employed in crushing oil seeds, especially groundnut.

Dal Mills

Amongst the agricultural products of the District, pulses like *tur* and *urad* are produced in considerable quantities. *Dal* milling on a factory basis appears to have been started in the District recently, as the first mention of *Dal* mill, registered under the Factories Act, is in the year 1958. The factory was located at Khandwa. By 1960 another factory was started at Khandwa. Both the factories employed on an average 60 to 70 workers per day. In 1962, the number of factories remained two.

Printing Presses

It is under the Factories Act of 1934 that the printing presses in the District were registered as factories. In the year 1937 there were two such printing and book binding establishments in the District, employing on an average 32 workers daily. By 1939 only one printing press remained and in 1940 there was no mention of the printing press as a registered factory. It was in the year 1949 again that there was one printing and book binding establishment falling under the purview of the Factories Act, 1948. Thereafter, from the year 1950 to 1956 there was no mention of the printing presses registered under the Factories Act. It was in the year 1958 that the two printing presses both located at Burhanpur were registered as factories under the Factories Act, 1948. These two presses between them provided employment to about 70 to 80 workers daily. One of these, viz., Burhanpur Printing and Box Making Co., Burhanpur, was established as early as 1941. By 1959 this press had a productive capital of about Rs. 1½ lakhs. On an average this press employed about 50 to 60 workers daily. In 1962, the number of printing presses was two.

General Engineering

It is in the year 1923 that there was a first mention of one general engineering works in the District as a factory registered under the Factories Act, 1911. In the year 1950 there was an addition of one more unit under this industry. One of these two was a Government aided Municipal Industrial School, at Khandwa, and the other was known as Central Provinces Industries. This latter unit has recently started manufacturing agricultural implements. The factories registered under this industry remained only two by the year 1962. Both of these the Industrial Training Institute and the Central Provinces Industries, (Foundry and Workshop) are located at Khandwa.

Bidi Industry

The Bidi Industry Committee of the C.P. and Berar, 1941, in its report traced the introduction of bidi manufacturing in the Province to the first decade of the Century by bidi merchants from Gujarat. "The proponderance of tendu leaves in the local forests, the nearness of markets and abundance of cheap

labour were the main causes in favour of establishing the industry in this province.[1] The report further maintains that "The establishment of the bidi industry in this province shows that it never started as such and the experts brought from outside were made to teach the local labour in a place similar to a workshop where manufacture was carried on under the direct supervision of the employer or his agent."[2] Because of these conditions of the industry it is difficult to trace the year in which bidi manufacture was started in the District. However, the Swadeshi Movement which started in the first decade of the present Century, gave the industry a great impetus. Upto the year 1948, the bidi factories were governed by the C.P. and Berar Unregulated Factories Act, 1937 and during the year 1937-38 there were six such factories in the District, one at Khandwa and five at Burhanpur. With the introduction of the Factories Act, 1948, the Unregulated Factories Act, was repealed and the bidi factories were brought under the purview of the Factories Act, 1948. In the year 1950, the number of factories in the District coming under the purview of this new Act was eight. By 1960 this number had increased to 15, which among them provided employment on an average daily to about 2,000 workers. Of these 15 factories, 12 are located at Burhanpur proper and other three at Khandwa. In the year 1962 the number of registered factories was 17. The bidi establishments registered under the Factories Act, however, present only a partial picture of this industry, as quite a considerable part of this industrial activity, viz., bidi rolling is being carried on in the rural areas. The *modus operandi* is that bidi leaves, tobacco and thread are all distributed to the bidi rollers in their hutments through the contractors employed by bidi merchants. Against a definite quantity of raw-material a definite number of bidis are manufactured by these bidi rollers who work either whole-time or part-time and hand over to the contractor who collects the bidis The payment is always on the basis of 1000 bidis rolled of the quality required. These rural establishments are known as feeder factories. Bidi rolling is said to be a supplementary source of income to the agriculturists in the off season everywhere. Because of these conditions in the industry it is difficult to state the total number of persons engaged in this industry. Some of the important establishments in the District in this field of manufacture are.—

Aulia bidi Factory

This factory was established in the year 1915. The factory employed about 570 workers on an average daily in the year 1959 and the value of bidis manufactured during the year was of the order of Rs. 11 lakhs.

Bacha bidi Factory

It was established in the year 19[illegible]8 and employed on an average 134 workers daily. The value of bidis manufactured in the year 1959 was about Rs. 2,75,000.

1. Report of the Bidi Industry Committee, 1941, p. 4.
2. Ibid, p. 6.

Dobhai Bidi Factory

This factory was established in the year 1942. The factory provided employment to about 129 workers daily. The value of bidis manufactured during the year 1959 was about Rs. 2,68,000.

Jangi Jahaz Bidi Factory

It was established in the year 1956. The factory provided employment to about 160 workers daily. The value of bidis manufactured was of the order of Rs. 3,26,000.

Babubhai Somabhai Patel Bidi Factory

This factory was established at Burhanpur in the year 1955. At the time of the establishement of the factory, invested capital was about Rs. 50,000. In the year 1961 it had increased to Rs. 2 lakhs. The factory employs on an average 180 workers per day.

All these factories are located at Burhanpur proper.

Saw Mills

In the forests of the District, timber is in abundance and hence in recent years at the three Tahsil head-quarters enterprising persons have opend saw mills. In the year 1960 there were about 18 saw mills in the District. Of these 13 were at Khandwa, four at Burhanpur and one at Harsud.

Soap Factories

In recent years about seven soap-making small units have been established in the District. These are mainly centred in the towns of Burhanpur and Khandwa. All these factories produce inferior quality of cloth-washing soap for satisfying the needs of poorer classes.

Button Factory

Recently one Jack Buttons Factory has been established at Khandwa with a capital investment of Rs. 20,000. The factory manufactures plastic buttons valued at Rs. 12,000 per annum. The raw-material, i.e., the mechanical pulp is imported mainly from Bombay. The buttons are now supplied to the markets of the District and those of adjoining areas. The concern provides employment to about 10 workers and intends to produce other varieties of plastic articles.

Confectionary

One confectionary works has been started at Burhanpur by one of the displaced persons. The factory produces cheap variety of confectionary for local consumption.

Large-Scale Factory Industries

Amongst the large-scale factory establishments of the District mention

may be made of the Burhanpur Tapti Mill Ltd., Burhanpur, and the National News Print and Paper Mill, Nepanagar.

The Burhanpur Tapti Mill, Burhanpur

It was established in the year 1906. The factors favourable for the establishment of this Mill appear to be the ample supplies of cotton and cheap labour. At the time of the establishment of the Mill, handloom industry of the District was practically annihilated in competition with foreign textile products and the workers in the handloom and allied industries in the District were available for employment in the mills in large numbers. The Mill commenced work in the year 1907 with 15,000 spindles and 200 looms. The Mill mostly uses cotton grown in the District out of which coarse counts of yarn are spun. The yarn manufactured by the Mill is consumed by the remanent of the handloom industry in the District and other adjacent areas. The cloth manufactured is unbleached and unfinished and is marketed in the State itself. The main products are *dhotis*, longcloth and *khadi*. The quantities of cloth and yarn manufactured by the Mill from the year 1950 to 1964 were as under.—

Year	Cloth produced in yards	Yarn produced in Lbs.
1950	1,36,66,572	52,59,630
1951	1,56,42,938	52,04,310
1952	1,63,63,224	62,64,079
1953	2,84,47,797	64,83,950
1954	1,91,56,935	64,08,222
1955	1,93,65,877	62,77,822
1956	2,50,68,374	72,60,094
1957	2,31,78,199	65,63,694
1958	1,84,69,094	45,79,384
1959	1,98,39,011	46,92,108
1960	2,17,01,403	49,17,833
1961	2,46,00,772	50,39,878
1962	2,34,04,501	59,74,040
1963	2,21,54,932	65,76,627
1964	2,26,80,666	76,97,611

The total working and fixed capital employed by the Mill in the year 1959 was little over Rs. 23 lakhs and on an average 2,350 workers were employed daily. The value of product for the year was Rs. 98,75,000. Development programme of the Mill, licensed under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951, till December, 1960, consisted of 639 spindles capacity for the manufacture of yarn from cotton waste ; 144 automatic looms capacity for the export of cotton cloth, and manufacture of vegetable oil from cotton seeds by solvent extraction process with a crushing capacity of 20,000 tons of cotton seeds per annum.

Besides Burhanpur Tapti Mill there are three other units registered under the Factories Act, 1948, as textile mills. But these mills are very small, employ-

ing among them 30 to 40 workers on an average daily. The names of these units are—(1) Ruby Doubling and Rayon Processing (2) Ruby Silk Weaving and (3) Ashok Doubling. All these three units are located at Burhanpur.

The National News Print and Paper Mill

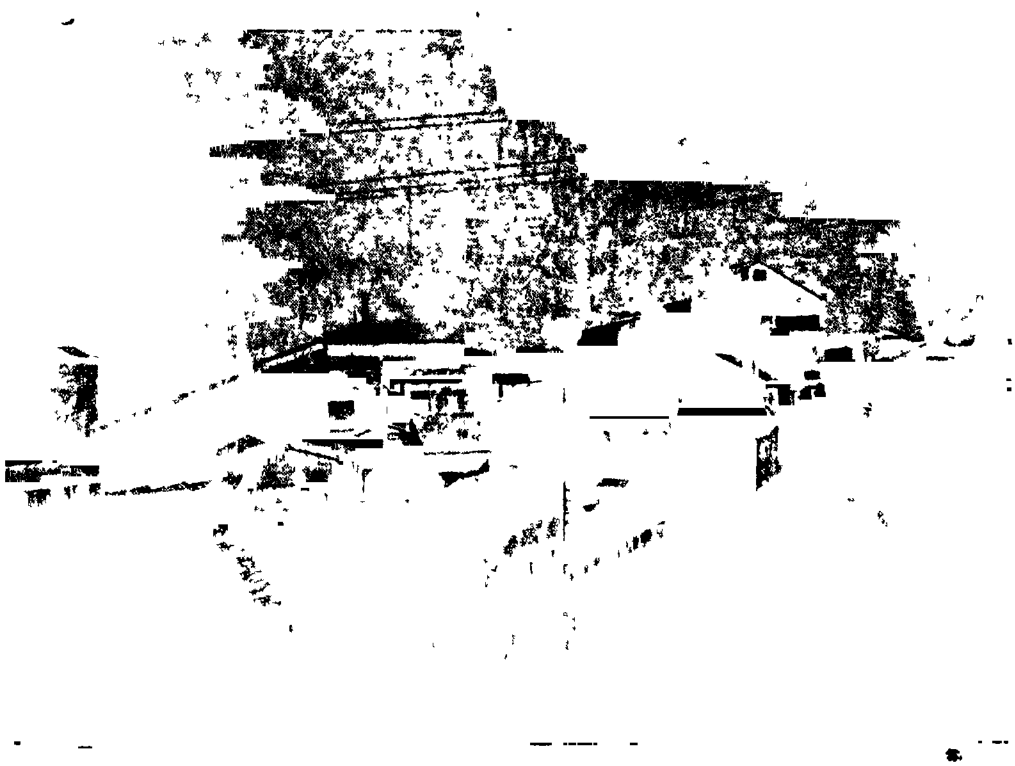
The second large-scale factory establishment of the District is the newsprint and paper-manufacturing industry. In the year 1948, Messers. Nair Press Syndicate Ltd., of Bombay formed a company to build up India's first newsprint and paper-mill in this District, with an authorised capital of Rs. 5 crores. The State Government permitted the Company to set up the National Newsprint and Paper Mill, now popularly known as the Nepa Mills near Chandni village of this District. As a gesture of good-will and its support to this foreign exchange saving industry, the State Government purchased shares worth Rs. 10 lakhs and gave other facilities and concessions in lieu of which the Company issued to the Government shares worth Rs. 5 lakhs. At the request of the Company the State Government further invested large amounts bringing the total subscribed capital to Rs. 140 lakhs. The foundation-stone of the factory was laid on the 26th December, 1948. In spite of this, Managing Agents of the Company found themselves unable to raise funds on their own and relinquished office in October, 1949. The State Government as the largest share holder persuaded the Board of Directors to appoint Government Officer as the Managing Agent.

The capacity of production of the present plant is 30,000 tonnes per year, which is only one-fourth of the Country's minimum annual requirement. The forest raw-materials used are bamboos (*Dendrocalamis strictus*) and *salai*-wood (*Boswellia serrata*), 36,000 tonnes each being the annual requirement. *Salai*-wood comes entirely from within the East Nimar District, while the bamboo supplies come from the adjoining districts of Hoshangabad aud Betul. Work of collection of *salai*-wood was commenced in 1954. The Government created plantations of this and other suitable species by the agri-silvicultural or ridges and ditch methods to make adequate supplies available within easy reach of the Mill. The required eight million gallons of water per day has been made available from the Tapti river, flowing at a distance of nearly two miles, by pumping it in a reservoir having capacity of eight million gallons. Since February, 1950, the construction work of the Mill was speeded up. Till July, 1953 most of the equipment was received at the site. Major part of the Workshop equipment was installed, and trial runs commenced in 1954. The Chemical Mill was ready for trial operation in 1958. To improve the quality and to reduce the cost of production of the finished products the Mill has obtained the latest type of laboratory equipment for experimental and research work.

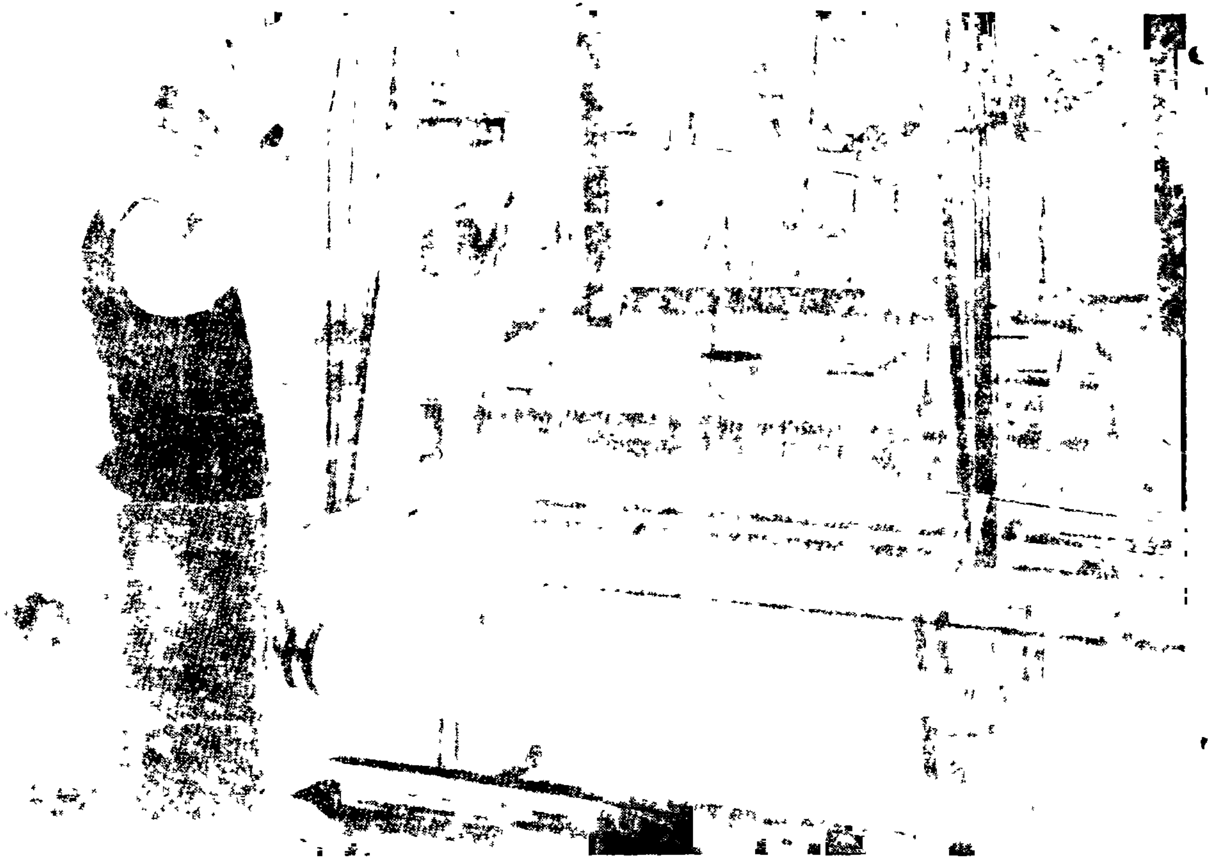
The production of newsprint by the Mill was started from the year 1955. The gross finished product of the Mill which was 10.9 thousand metric tons in 1956 had increased to 28.8 thousand metric tons in 1964. The highest production during this period was 30.2 thousand metric tons in the year 1963.



Nepanagar Colony



Newsprint Factory, Nepanagar



Powerloom Weaving, Burhanpur

The project has enabled the nation to save considerable foreign exchange, as the imports, which were mostly from hard currency areas, have been reduced to the extent the newsprint has been manufactured in the Country itself. Thus the industry has occupied a place of vital importance in the economy of the Country.

The Mill has provided employment to nearly 1,000 trained technical personnel. Besides this, a large number of unskilled labour has been employed by the Mill on ancillary works such as collection and handling of forest raw-materials, chemicals, finished products, etc. An indirect benefit of establishing this industry in the State of Madhya Pradesh has been the improvement of its forests. The creation of large-scale plantations by the agri silvicultural methods has not only provided occupation to a large number of cultivators but also resulted in an increased production. The place where the factory is located has been developed into a new township named after the unit Nepanagar.

Cottage Industries

Handloom Weaving

Among the cottage industries of the District, place of prime importance is that of handloom weaving. An account of this industry in the olden days is a glorious chapter in the economic history of the District. Passing through many vicissitudes during the centuries of foreign rule over the Country, the National Government being conscious of its importance, is providing succour to sustain it. Earlier efforts for obtaining better results in production consisted of introducing Hattersley-looms. In the year 1928 a Hattersley-loom teacher was also appointed at Burhanpur. During the year 1929-30, two travelling demonstration parties visited weaving centres in the District and introduced sleys and warping machines. Then followed the period of depression in cotton trade and during the, 'thirties of the present Century, the handloom industry of the District, as elsewhere in the country, was tottering on its legs, as it were. The situation was further aggravated by the low prices of mill made cloth with which the product of the industry could not compete. Because of the introduction of improved looms and sleys pace of production increased, and stocks began to accumulate. Only the weavers of fine and artistic fabrics, which could not be manufactured by the mills, were in a position to withstand the strain. The weavers of ordinary, *dhotis*, saris and *khadi* had to bear the brunt. The imposition of tariffs on foreign yarn and piece goods since 1925 and the Swadeshi Movement of 1930, however, afforded some relief. It was the Second World War period during which industry revived. Besides the urban centres in the District, handloom weaving was carried on in the villages of Burhanpur and Khandwa Tahsils. In the year 1943 in Burhanpur Tahsil, there were nine villages with 34 handloom establishments employing 75 persons. These among them produced cloth worth Rs. 1,600. The products included saris (cotton and silk) *khadi*, *durries* and rugs (cotton and woollen). In Khandwa Tahsil there were 12 villages with 66 establishments. About 180 persons were working in these establishments and produced cloth worth Rs. 1,650.

After the War the industry again began to face difficulties. The way out was expected to be found in organizing the weavers in co-operatives. But till 1945 the efforts to organize Weavers Co-operative Societies did not meet with much success. However, the introduction of control on prices and distribution of yarn by the Government of India, gave an impetus to the formation of Weavers' Co-operative Societies and a number of them were registered in the course of a few years. In June, 1952 the number of handlooms registered in the District was 8,151. The number of registered handlooms as on the 31st March, 1959 was 3,445 and by the 31st March, 1962, this number had come down to 2,516. The reduction in the number of handlooms might be attributed to a tendency amongst the weavers to take to powerloom weaving. According to 1961 Census the number of handloom weavers was 2,636, of which 2,372 were enumerated under household industry and 264 under non-household industry. Burhanpur saris are exported to the adjacent districts of Jalgaon, Dhulia, Buldana and Akola of the State of Maharashtra.

Powerloom Weaving.

Introduction of powerlooms for weaving might be traced back to the year 1932 when electricity was made available for the purpose at Burhanpur. With a view to encouraging handloom industry, since 1950 the Government of India have put certain restrictions on textile mills and powerlooms in respect of production of certain varieties of cloth which have been exclusively reserved for handloom weaving. In the year 1945 the number of powerlooms working at Burhanpur was 470. The number increased to about 1,545 by 1962. There is a growing tendency amongst the weavers of the District to take to powerlooms, the development of which, however, depends on the availability of power at low rates. The number of powerloom weavers in 1961 was recorded as 1,377, consisting of 1,076 under household and 301 under non-household industries.

Oil Industry

In the year 1943 in about 35 villages of Khandwa and Burhanpur Tahsils there were about 60 *ghani* owners producing about 128 maunds of tilli and groundnut oil, value of which was about Rs. 1,400. Mundi, Punasa, Loni, Shahpur, Bahadarpur, Khamani and Chapora were the big centres producing oil by *ghanis*. On an average each centre produced about 15 maunds of oil during a year. Extraction of oil by *ghanis* is becoming rare with the introduction of Baby Expellers and bigger oil mills. In 1961, 412 persons were enumerated as engaged in edible oil extraction, of which 184 were recorded under household and 228 under non-household industries.

Leather Goods Industry

Leather goods manufacturing industry during the year 1943 engaged about 500 persons in 290 establishments scattered in 85 villages of Khandwa and Burhanpur Tahsils. Mundi, Mohad, Ahmadpur and Shahpur were the main manufacturing centres. All establishments produced about 6,150 leather articles

of the value of about Rs. 4,100. With the availability of cheaper machine-made leather goods, the industry has lost ground. However, a Charmakar Co-operative Society has been established at Khandwa to save the industry from total extinction. In the year 1951 total number of persons engaged in the Industry of leather products and footwear was about 1,300. In the year 1961, 327 persons were enumerated in manufacture of shoes and other leather footwear, while 1,437 persons were enumerated as engaged in currying, tanning and finishing of hides.

Rope Making

Rope making has been one of the old-time cottage industries of the District. The industry is mainly located at Burhanpur. The persons engaged in the industry are popularly known as *rassiwalas*. All the members of the families of *rassiwalas* carry out the whole process of rope making. In the year 1951 total earners in this industry were about 110. Only 57 persons were enumerated as engaged in rope making in the year 1961. The rope makers are not familiar with the improved methods of production. Recently, a co-operative society of rope makers has been formed with a membership of 120 persons and a paid-up capital of Rs. 5,000.

Other Cottage Industries

Working in precious stones and precious metals and making of jewellery have been, since long, important cottage industries of the District. The industries have seen many ups and downs during the period of about a Century. In 1951 total number of workers engaged in these industries was about 650. In 1961 there were 884 persons engaged in manufacture of jewellery, silverware and wares using gold and other precious metals. Carpentry and basket making industries in the year 1951 engaged about 1,100 and 375 persons, respectively. Carpenters, joiners and pattern-makers numbered 1,589; basket-weavers and related workers 1,297, as per 1961 occupational classification. In urban centres of the District furniture making industry has been progressing. In the year 1951 number of workers in the industry was about 50. Only 10 persons were enumeratd in 1961 as manufacturers of wooden furniture and fixture. The industry of wooden furniture and fixture, however, has good prospects in the District due to availability of timber at cheaper rates from the forests of the District.

Industrial Arts

Gold Thread-Drawing

As regards the industrial arts of the District it may be mentioned that the industrial arts of gold and silver wire-drawing and embroidering, which [illegible] since ages in the District had shown a declining trend in twenties and thirties. Census Report of 1931 observes "The famous gold-thread industry of Burhanpur decayed still further. The use of improved appliances has enabled the weavers of Surat and Madras to produce and sell gold-thread at

cheaper rates and by the end of the decade not more than half a dozen craftsmen at Burhanpur were producing gold-thread on a very small scale. The art is practised negligibly at present".[1]

INDUSTRIAL POTENTIAL

A review of industries in the District as given in the foregoing pages indicates that there was no industrial development of the District, except for the unplanned development of cotton-ginning and pressing factories and establishment of a few oil and *dal* mills, over a period of nearly a century and a half. One of the reasons for this lack of industrial development might be the absence of mineral resources in the District and shortage of power. But from the records available, it cannot be said that the District is totally devoid of any minerals. Proper survey of the area near Chandgarh where red ore once existed, might result in a fresh find of some value. Then again the river Narmada provides great scope for the hydro-electric power development in the District and the Techno Economic Survey report of the State of Madhya Pradesh conducted by the National Council of Applied Economic Research in the year 1958, considered the Punasa project on the river Narmada in the District as of "crucial importance to the State" demanding high priority. A beginning has been made on this project by making a provision of Rs. 0.50 crore in the Second Five Year Plan of the State.

In the cotton growing tract of the State this District occupies an important place; but there is no scope for the establishment of more textile units in the District as can be seen from the working of the existing units, products of which have only a restricted market in the State itself. Neither is there a scope for the development of cotton-ginning and pressing industry, because its development had already been such as to prove uneconomical. What is required in case of this industry is intensive and not exteusive development. From this point of view cotton-seed processing and *Vanaspati* industries can be started, either in conjuction with the cotton-ginning and pressing industry or separately, if the supply of raw-material, i.e., cotton-seed so warrants. The National Council of Applied Economic Research in its survey suggested establishment of cotton-seed processing units in cotton growing areas.

In the District there are already one or two big oil mills and more than a dozen smaller ones. With a view to utilizing the by-product, viz., oil-cake available from the oil mills, an establishment of a unit, for the manufacture of oil from oil-cake by the solvent extraction process, was licenced under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951. This unit was licenced with an installed capacity of 16,000 tons per annum of cotton-seed oil by the crushing of cotton-seed, by the solvent extraction process or by expeller crushing. By the same licence the unit was to manufacture vegetable oil from any

1. Census Report, 1931, C.P. and Berer, pt, I, Appendix IV, pp. 432-33.

oil-cake by the solvent extraction process. This aspect of the manufacture was to have an installed capacity of 13,250 tons per annum.

The installed capacity of the existing paper manufacturing unit, viz., the National Newsprint and Paper Mills, which is 30,000 tonnes per annum, has to be expanded by further addition of 30,000 tonnes per annum.

The State Government are also helping the handloom industry and other small scale industries in the District by trying to popularise the products of these industries through the media of fairs and exhibitions. Small-scale and cottage industries emporium was started at Khandwa during the Second Five Year Plan period, and expenditure of Rs. 7,162.43 was incurred on the starting and running of the emporium.

During the Second Five Year Plan period a scheme for establishing a weavers' colony at Burhanpur was sanctioned. At the cost of Rs. 1,80,000, some 50 tenements were to be constructed, out of which 44 have been constructed during the period.

In order to encourage the establishment of small-scale industries and to develop the existing ones Government have given loans to the individuals and societies to the tune of Rs. 93,038 during the Second Plan period.

A centre for the training of the bidi workers has been started at Burhanpur by the Labour Department. This is a first centre of its kind for the bidi workers in the State.

In consonance with the Government's policy to establish Industrial Estates in the rural and urban areas, an expenditure of Rs. 1,90,677.56 was incurred during the Second Plan period in acquiring land for the Estate, laying down of approach roads, construction of drains, chowkidar's quarters and construction of nine sheds in the area. Development of small-scale industries is being thus facilitated by providing accommodation, water, light, etc.

The industrial areas are to be developed at Khandwa and Burhanpur for which sites are selected and are in the stage of being acquired for the purpose.

One rural work-shed is being constructed at Harsud with a provision for six units. The site is selected and is being acquired.

LABOUR AND EMPLOYERS' ORGANIZATIONS

Some of the important industries in the District, as has been stated in the earlier pages are cotton textile, paper manufacturing, bidi-making, generation of electricity, etc. As such the organizations of the workers or trade unions are found in these industries. At present there are following trade unions in the District, which are registered under the Indian Trade Union Act, 1926.

1. The Tapti Mill Mazdur Sangh, Burhanpur.
2. Burhanpur National Textile Workers Union, Burhanpur.
3. Burhanpur Textile Clerks' Association, Burhanpur.
4. Burhanpur Weavers' Union, Burhanpur.
5. Burhanpur Bidi Kamgar Union, Burhanpur.
6. Burhanpur Power Loom Workers' Union, Burhanpur.
7. Nepa Mill Employees' Union, Nepanagar.
8. Vidyut Karmachari Sangh, Nepanagar.

None of the above unions, except the Nepa Mill Employees' Union, are recognized under the C.P. and Berar Industrial Disputes Settlement Act, 1947. The first of these trade unions is affiliated to Hind Mazdur Sabha, while the second and the third are affiliated to the Indian National Trade Union Congress. Both the unions at Nepanagar are affiliated to the Indian National Trade Union Congress.

It might be seen from the list of the trade unions, that there are no trade unions in the cotton-ginning and pressing and oil mill industries of the District. The reasons for this absence might be found in the seasonal nature of the cotton-ginning and pressing factories and in the very small number of oil mills. As a matter of fact there is only one oil mill of any importance in the District.

There are no Employers' organisations in the District in any industry.

Labour Welfare

Labour Welfare activities are being carried on statutorily and voluntarily. The Factories Act, 1948, Minimum Wages Act, 1948, the Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948, Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952, are some of the major enactments which through their applicability to certain industries and the factory estalishments registered under the Factories Act, 1948 under these industries, ensure the welfare of industrial workers generally.

Some basic requirements for the welfare of workers like protection of machinery in order to avoid accidents, regulation of working hours, adequate light, air and cleanliness in the factory premises, provision of creches for the children of women employees, canteens, dining sheds, etc., are required to be provided by the factories coming under the purview of the Factories Act, 1948. There were about 70 factories in the District in the year 1960 registered under the Factories Act, and above facilities are available to the workers, wherever applicable.

The Minimum Wages Act, 1948 is applicable to certain industries specified in the Schedule to the Act. This enactment provides protection against wages being pushed below a prescribed minimum. Some of the industries in the District for which minimum wages are fixed under this Act are bidi-making, oil industry, *dal* mills, cotton-ginning and pressing and printing.

In the bidi industry for the town of Burhanpur the minimum wage was Rs. 1.43 per 1,000 bidis as on the 1st of November, 1956, and for Khandwa the rate was Rs. 1.37 per 1,000 bidis. In *dal* mills, the rates were Re. 1 per day for male and 0.75 paise per day for female workers. In oil mills the rate was Rs. 1.25 for male and Re. 1 for female workers. In the printing presses the rate of wage for a skilled worker was Rs. 65 per month, for semi-skilled Rs. 50 per month and for unskilled worker above the age of 18 years Rs. 40 per month and Rs. 35 per month for a worker below the age of 18. In cotton-ginning and pressing industry, the minimum wages for 27 different occupations were fixed separately. For ordinary workers in unskilled category in ginning section daily wage-rate was Rs. 1.37 for male labour and Rs. 1.25 for female. In pressing section the daily wage-rates for male and female workers were Rs. 1.75 and Rs. 1.62 respectively.

In the year 1959, wage-rates in some of the industries mentioned above were revised. For bidi workers at Burhanpur the wage-rate was fixed at Rs. 1.62 per 1,000 bidis and at Khandwa Rs. 1.56. In the oil mills and *dal* mills at Burhanpur the minimum wage-rate for a skilled worker per day was fixed at Rs. 3.50, for semi-skilled worker Rs. 2.75 and for unskilled male and female workers rates were Rs. 1.75 and 1.50 per day, respectively. For the same industries at Khandwa the wage-rates fixed were slightly low, being Rs. 3.25 per day for skilled, Rs. 2.50 per day for semi-skilled and Rs. 1.50 and Rs. 1.25 for unskilled male and female workers, respectively. There was no change in the rates of wages fixed in the printing press, cotton-ginning and pressing industries.

The Employees' State Insurance Scheme framed under the Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948, provides for the compulsory insurance of a specified class of wage earners in all the perennial factories covered by the Factories Act, 1948. The Scheme provides five types of benefits such as sickness benefit, maternity, disablement benefit, dependents and medical benefits. The Employees' State Insurance Scheme was made applicable to Burhanpur town in the year 1956 and 11 industrial establishments were covered under it. It was in the year 1959 that the benefits under the scheme were extended to the workers' families. The particulars of workers and their families receiving medical benefits from the year 1956 to 1962 were as under.—

Year	No. of industrial establishments covered	No. of workers covered	Medical care given to insured persons		Medical care given to families	
			New	Old	New	Old
1956	11	3,500	3,639	17,200	—	—
1957	11	,,	9,702	40,434	—	—
1958	11	,,	10,914	46,761	—	—
1959	11	,,	9,499	33,076	21,120	62,680
1960	11	,,	8,337	23,692	27,513	69,892
1961	11	,,	10,911	43,238	21.561	49,441
1962	11	,,	9,678	41,212	20,674	48,123

Besides medical treatment the value of different cash benefits paid to the workers from the year 1958-59 to 1961-62 were.—

Benefits	1958-59 Rs.	1959-60 Rs.	1960-61 Rs.	1961-62 Rs.
1. Temporary disablement	4,513.55	3,639.73	6,364.80	3,500.50
2. Sickness	73,512.50	34,515.55	56,340.72	27,605.29
3. Extensive sickness	340.50	740.35	2,036.55	2,423.05
4. Maternity	1,084,05	294.00	1,277.31	1,141.79
5. Permanent partial disablement	18.03	497.64	754.92	1,001.45
6. Dependents	—	—	—	66.56

The Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952, and the Scheme framed thereunder, has been made applicable to different industries from time to time. To the textile and paper industries, it was made applicable in the year 1959 and to oil industry, electricity generation and printing the Scheme was made applicable from the 31st July, 1956. The newspaper establishments were covered under the Scheme from the 31st December, 1956, *dal* milling from the 31st December, 1960. There are 12 factory establishments and 188 workers covered under the Provident Fund Scheme in the District. Employees in the establishments covered under the Scheme who have worked for a continuous period of one year or for not less than 240 days during 12 months or less, and whose basic wages, retaining allowance and dearness allowance including cash value of food concession do not exceed Rs. 500 per month can be a member of the Scheme. Both the members of the Fund and the employers have to contribute at the rate of 6¼ per cent of the wages as detailed above. The members contribute even up to 8⅓ per cent, if they so desire. No part of the workers' contribution and interest thereon can be withheld by any one or attached by court. The employers' contribution with interest thereon is refunded in full to the members or their nominees/heirs in case of completion of 15 years' membership, permanent physical or mental disability, superannuation, retrenchment or permanent migration from India and in the event of their death. The Scheme not only ensures compulsory savings but doubles it with employers' contribution and assures a decent yield with absolute safety. The importance of the Scheme as a welfare measure for industrial workers is immense.

Under the Madhya Pradesh Maternity Benefits Act, 1958, there were six cases in the year 1961 and cash benefit of the value of Rs. 590 was given. In the year 1962, however, there was only one case in which a cash benefit of Rs. 155 was given.

As can be seen from the foregoing account, a large field of the welfare of industrial workers in the District is covered under different enactments, as elsewhere. However, the industrial employers like the Management of the Burhanpur Tapti Mill and the Nepa Mill in the District have on their own constructed some 500 tenements (*pucka*) and 800 industrial quarters, respectively,

for the use of their employees, officials and workers. The Burhanpur Tapti Mill have given these quarters to their workers on low rent, while the rent of the quarters at Nepanagar varies from Rs. 5 to Rs. 100 per month. Besides this, the management of both the factories are evincing interest in providing medical facilities for the workers and their families. The Tapti Mill Management have appointed a qualified doctor in the dispensary and are spending about Rs. 20,000 annually on it. The number of patients treated at this dispensary is on an average 350 per day. The Nepa Mill Management have also a well-equipped dispensary and qualified medical staff.

In the field of education to the children of their employees, the Tapti Mill Management contribute about Rs 1,000 per annum to the school in the labour colony of Lalbag (Burhanpur). The Nepa Mill Management also contribute about Rs. 2,000 per annum to the High School at Nepanagar for the children of the employees. This concern also spends about Rs. 3,000 per annum towards the maintenance and functioning of Nepa Club, meant for the recreation and entertainment of the factory employees.

Besides these two employers of industrial labour in the District, welfare activities on a voluntary basis are not known to have been carried on by others.

Similarly, the trade unions in the District have no known welfare activities for the benefit of their members.

The State Government on their side in the Labour Department are running a labour welfare centre at Burhanpur. Its establishment, working and development form part of the Five Year Plan for labour welfare in the District. Established during the First Five Year Plan period, the Centre was strengthened during the Second Plan by equipping it with better amenities of recreation and welfare of the workers. The Government also undertook construction work of the building for welfare centre. Expenditure of Rs. 30,000 was incurred on the Scheme during the Second Plan period.

With a view to providing housing facilities to hanldoom weavers of Burhanpur, in the Second Five Year Plan there was a scheme to construct a handloom weavers' colony at Burhanpur Most of the work relating to the Scheme, such as selection of site, acquisition of land, preparation of layout plan and estimates, has been completed with an expenditure of Rs. 40,000 during the plan period.

CHAPTER VI

BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

History of Indigenous Banking

The paucity of records relating to the existence of indigenous banking in the District has rendered it difficult to trace precisely the emergence, growth and decline of the system, particularly in East Nimar. Therefore, what is generally true about the indigenous banking for the Avanti or Malwa region, might be taken as applicable to this District also.

Researches into the subject of indigenous banking have traced the origin and development of the system, in some or the other form, right from the Vedic period onward. Among traders and travelling merchants, also engaged in money-lending, were rich *sreshthin or seth,* who used to be an important social factor in the past. Their association called *sreni* used to execute the contract under corporate responsibility. Their existence in the fifth and the sixth Centuries, B.C., is clearly established by the *jatakas.* This suggests that like trade, indigenous banking must have been a regular feature of the economic life of the people in ancient times. Manu, the lawgiver in his code *(smriti),* the period of which has been assigned to the second or third Century, A.D., not only wrote about the "Recovery of Debt" but also "Deposites and Pledges." People were enjoined to make deposits with bankers of good repute. The references to different 'Rates of Interest,' were also to be found, therein.

All these references bear a testimony to the hoary past of indigenous banking and trade, etc., as necessary ingredients in the economic life of the people. Mahismati which formed an integral part of the Avanti region, and had the distinction of being the capital of southern Avanti, by virtue of its situation on an important ancient trade route, enjoyed distinctive place among the ancient trade centres.

The history of the region, comprising East Nimar, shows well-developed manufacturing, trading and banking activities at Burhanpur, and its surroundings from the 15th Century when the Faruqui kings of Khandesh established their capital, first at Asirgarh, and later at Burhanpur. Faruqui dynasty was replaced by the Mughals in the beginning of the 17th Century. "The District and the capital of Boorhanpore (Burhanpur) attained the height of their prosperity during the reign of Shah Jehan."[1] The manufactures of calico and gold-

1. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p. 33.

...ful, were large and the cloth was exported to Europe. It is difficult to imagine ... manufacturing and trading activities of such a magnitude being carried on without an efficient and effective banking system. Some idea of the ramifications of the banking system during the 17th Century can be had from the accounts of the French traveller Tavernier, who visited Burhanpur twice, first in 1641 and later in 1658. He wrote, "As all goods produced in the Empire of the Great Moghul......reach Surat to be exported by sea to different places of Asia and Europe, when one leaves Surat to go for the purchase of these goods in the towns from whence they are obtained as at......Brampour (Burhanpur), one takes silver from Surat and disposes of it at the places where one goes, giving coin for coin at par. But when it happens that the merchant finds himself short of money in these same places, and that he has need of it to enable him to pay for the goods which he has bought, it is necessary for him to meet it at Surat, when the bill is due, which is at two months, and by paying a high rate of exchange"[1]......At Burhanpur on Surat, the exchange rate goes up from 2½ to 3 per cent.

The Mughal rulers established large number of mints all over the Country. At Burhanpur there was one such mint, which used to issue metal currency of different classes or denominations.

During this period many traders and travelling merchants migrated and colonized at Burhanpur. A few of them also functioned as indigenous bankers. Virji Vora of Surat,* was the richest merchant having his branch at Burhanpur. Reports establish that he used to finance foreign traders also, charging high rates of interest varying from 25 per cent to 36 per cent. As no uniform system of coinage existed, the indigenous banking had money-changing as one of its activities and was carried on with profit. This activity of bankers and merchants facilitated internal and external trade. With the introduction of unified coinage system by the East India Company in the year 1835, by which time the Company rule was established over the major part of the Country, money-changing business of indigenous bankers received a set-back.

With the advent of the European traders, in the 17th Century, Agency House Banks were established by European merchants, the fore-runners of the modern banking companies East India Company also established its agency at Burhanpur in the first quarter of the 17th Century, which apart from its commercial interests, also did some sort of banking business.

Nature of Indigenous Banking

Some idea of the methods of the so-called indigenous bankers of those days

1. Jean Baptiste Tavernier, Travels in India, tr. V Ball, Vol I, pp 35-36.
* He was a reputed financier of Surat with whom English had dealings since 1619. He was Company's largest creditor and employed agents at Burhanpur, Ahmedabad, Agra, etc Thevenot reckoned him to be worth atleast eight million Sterlings (Willam Foster, English Factories in India, 1634 36, p. 243; and Travels of Peter Mundy, 1608-1667, Vol. II, Hakluyat Society Series, p. 139).

can be had from the report of Jenkins on the territories of the Raja of Nagpur, submitted to the Government of India in 1827.

"He states that even in those days, pilgrims were financed by the issue of *hundis* by indigenous bankers......all payments of land revenue and the extra imports were made at the *kasba* or chief town of the pargana by the patels either in person or through confidential agents, sometimes in cash and sometimes in drafts on Sowkar,"[1]

An indigenous banker is identified with the acceptance of deposits, or dealing in *hundis*, or both, by the Rural Credit Survey Report. The farmer landlords, the substantial cultivators, the *mahajans or sahukars* and itinerant money-lenders have been the principal indigenous financiers in rural areas. *Seth* and *mahajan* served in the urban areas. The majority of these combine banking with some sort of trade, and the capital employed in banking is not distinguished from that employed in trade. He does a great deal of general banking business, such as, buying and selling, remittance, discounting *hundis*, receiving deposits and advancing loans against stock in trade.

These were the varieties of functions the indigenous bankers performed and these multifarious activities reacted upon banking development of the Country as a whole. With a change in the political and economic conditions in the Country the institutions providing banking and credit facilities also changed. First came the Agency Houses at Calcutta, the precursors of early joint stock banking. These Agency Houses were big business concerns and the East India Company favoured Agency Houses as against the indigenous bankers. As stated earlier the Company itself established one of its agencies at Burhanpur. This agency used to purchase certain manufactured goods and also the raw materials produced in this area. In 1835 a uniform currency was established in the whole of British India As a result of which the important source of income of indigenous bankers, viz., money-changing disappeared. The effect of early European wars in India on the whole was unfavourable for indigenous bankers' business. And ultimately when the European banking institutions came to be established all over India, i. e., joint stock banking, the indigenous bankers yet maintained a separate existence without forming any connection with these institutions. This attitude by the bankers in course of time resulted in serious consequences. The indigenous banker continued in his old ways without profiting from new experiments, and in the complexities of modern credit and finance the business of the indigenous banker declined. Yet indigenous bankers in a loose term cannot be wholly ignored from the banking, trade and commercial activities. Everywhere in the Country so long as our rural economy remains as it is, the indigenous banker or money-lender will remain firmly rooted.

GENERAL CREDIT FACILITIES AVAILABLE

The principal agencies supplying short and intermediate credit in general

1. The C.P. Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee Report, 1929-30, Vol. I, p. 329.

are the indigenous *mahajans* and professional and private money-lenders, commercial banks, Government agencies, and co-operative credit societies and banks. In the recent years, more especially after Independence, co-operative credit institutions have been extending their area of operation vigorously under Plan schemes. Government are also making available substantial funds for a variety of purposes. The commercial banks mainly supply the credit in urban areas, and hence its area of operation is very much restricted. Moreover, their organization and method of work combine to limit its utility in respect of rural area. Thus notwithstanding the development of these new agencies, the professional money-lender continues to be the corner-stone of credit in the rural area.

Indebtedness

Rural indebtedness, which has been a natural corollary of indigenous finance, proverbially over shadowed an average cultivator's entire life. It is said, "he is born in debt, lives in debt and also dies in debt." The earliest reference forthcoming from the Nimar Settlement Report of 1868-69 reveals that major portion of a Nimari cultivator's annual income drained into the pockets of money-lenders or grain dealers who supplied funds to start the farm, and also advanced the grains. In such cases, rate of interest on borrowed money amounted to two per cent per month. The borrowed grain was required to be returned in kind at double the quantity.[1] The balance left over with the cultivator for sustaining himself and his family was to a great extent disproportionately wasted on marriage, rituals of funerals, etc. Thus a cultivator starting without any capital, seldom could ever clear off his debt. No idea about the magnitude of the rural debt could be had till the late 'nineties of the last Century when Montgomerie carried out detailed enquiries in a block of 24 villages near Burhanpur, during the Resettlement Operations of 1895-99 'Indebtedness was reported to be most prevalent' in this tract. The data collected 'showed reassuring results.' "Of the 882 *malik-makbuzas* and tenants, over one-half were in debt, but three-fifths of them did not owe more than Rs. 100, and only 6 per cent owed more than Rs 500."[2] Classified by origin, the enquiry showed that about 60 per cent of debt resulted from Agricultural Capital, including old (50 per cent) and recent (10 per cent); 18 per cent on account of Personal Expenses and about 22 per cent on account of Mixed or of unknown origin.[3]

It may thus be seen that one-half of the debt was on account of recent Agricultural Capital requirements and that nearly three-fourths of this debt did not exceed Rs. 250. Two-thirds of the debt incurred for Personal Expenses did not exceed Rs. 250.[4]

The customary extravagance of the people on the occasions like marriage and celebration of rituals like feeding the community on funerals, etc., is largely

1. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, pp 267-68,
2. Ibid, 1895-99, p. 17.
3. Ibid.
4. Ibid.

responsible for the rural indebtedness. Besides, during the 18th Century wide prevalence of fore-stalling the crop, locally known as the *jor* system,[1] was also responsible for this. The money-lenders under *jor* system imposed explicit condition that a fixed quantity of cotton should be returned after the harvesting of the crop. If the cultivator paid the agreed quantity of cotton the difference was considered as interest on the debt. If however, the cultivator failed to abide by the terms of agreement, the money-lender refusing to accept cash payment, insisted on transacting a fresh *jor* in cotton doubling the quantity of cotton. Thus the debt in an year increased manifold. But during the early years of this Century the system was found fast decaying owing to the strengthened economic position of the cultivators. Cultivators stopped mortgaging their crop in advance.

Nimari's passion for litigation has always placed the District at the top of the Provincial list, for many years,[2] prior to 1911. This drained out considerable portion of their income. But in course of time the futility of extravagant expenditure on social customs and litigation had begun to dawn on the people, though the burden of old debt still continued to crush the people in the District.

During the closing decade of the 19th Century, malguzars became more heavily involved in debts which resulted in the transfer of land to money-lenders. Nelson during the course of Settlement Operations (1911-14) found that though a few malguzars lost ground in lieu of debt totalling Rs. 2.46 lakhs, yet it was observed that the proportion of indebted persons was on the decline. Of the typical Nimari cultivators only 2 per cent were found in "hopeless condition of insolvency or little above the status of labourers,[2] while the rest were economically sound. The Industrial Survey Committee of 1908 observed that the weaving industry, localized mainly at Burhanpur was greatly suffering from adverse financial conditions during this period, because of high prices of yarn. They were under heavy pressure of advances given by the merchants.[4] The Committee further observed that the same was the plight of brick-making industry at Khandwa. The Kumhars of Khandwa owed a debt ranging from Rs. 200 to Rs. 1,000 apiece, at the rate of interest varying from 12 to 36 per cent.

The rates of interest on loans borrowed from money lenders varied according to the credit-worthiness of the person and the class of cultivator to which he belonged. Generally, persons who possessed *malik-makbuza* lands were in a favourable position and they could easily borrow money at a rate as low as 6 per cent. In case of others, whose credit was not very sound, the rate of interest varied from 12 to 24 per cent.[5] Russell observed that "a common form of

1. Ibid, 1911-14, p. 14.
2. Ibid, p. 31.
3. Report on the Industrial Survey, 1908-09, p. 22.
4. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p 234.
5. Ibid, 1911-14, p. 31.

transaction is to make the principal and interest payable in monthly instalments. Simple mortgages on landed property are usually given and usufructuary mortgages or those with fore-closure conditions are rare."[1]

In the late 'twenties the position of indebtedness in the District was again investigated by the C.P. Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee, 1929-30. In all 208 families in three villages, one in each tahsil named Amalpura in Khandwa, Sarola in Burhanpur and Brahmogram in Harsud Tahsil of the District, were investigated. It was found that villagers were heavily indebted to *sahukars*. The Committee further observed that even the members of co-operative societies were indebted, rather more heavily than other villagers. Usually July and August were the months in which borrowing was at its peak, the amounts being payable in November or December.

Items of social expenditure like marriage continued to be the leading causes of indebtedness. The economic enquiry made by the Committee revealed that in general the amount of indebtedness was relatively very heavy. The rate of interest for short term loan ranged between 18 to 25 per cent in the District. *Malik-makbuza* tenants were, however, in a position to get loan at 12 per cent if they mortgaged their land. In the event of failure to repay the debt on the due date it was met either by an increase in the rate of interest up to 37½ per cent or compound interest in place of demand of cotton.

By applying sampling method to this District, and examining 'the individual debts of a large number of cultivators in all parts of the District', the Committee in 1929-30 found the following incidence of indebtedness in the areas surveyed by them:—

Incident of Indebtedness	Tahsil			District total
	Harsud	Khandwa	Burhanpur	
Percentage of malguzars indebted	48	68	40	58
Percentage of malguzars not indebted	52	32	60	42
Percentage of *malik-makbuzas* indebted	50	67	31	51
Percentage of *malik-makbuzas* not indebted	50	33	69	49
Percentage of *ryots* and tenants indebted	73	15	65	70
Percentage of *ryots* and tenants not indebted	27	85	35	30

The Committee assessed the magnitude of indebtedness as follows.—

	Tahsils			Total debt
	Harsud Rs	Khandwa Rs.	Burhanpur Rs.	Rs.
Total malguzari debt	1,80,374	16,16,676	23,33,622	41,30,672
Total *malik-makbuza* debt	86,946	13,78,694	5,33,688	20,01,336
Total tenancy debt and total *ryots* debt	18,05,296	41.90,680	40,27,062	1,01,22,048
Total agricultural indebteness of the District	—	—	—	1,62,54,056

1 Nimar District Gazetteer, 1908, p. 117

The Committee further observed: "these figures are in some ways of peculiar interest. The first point which strikes the eye is the relatively heavy indebtedness of *ryots* in *ryotwari* villages."[1] Their indebtedness in 'Burhanpur Tahsil calls for special consideration.' The Committee was against giving rights of transfer to these villagers for it feared that if these rights were granted, many of the heavily indebted *ryots* would lose their lands in lieu of heavy debts.[2] The very high rates of interest charged by the *sahukars* and *mahajans* of the locality also contributed to a great extent towards the increased indebtedness.

The total debt of Rs. 1,62,54,056 represented a little more than twice the annual cost of cultivation, and 62 per cent of the value of the gross crop outturn, when cotton was taken to be sold at Rs. 75 per *khandi*. The purposes for which these loans were incurred are given in the following statement.—

	Per cent
Repayment of earlier debt	38.2
Marriage and other social ceremonies	19.5
Maintenance expenses including results of scarcity and distress	5.0
Payment of land revenue and debt	2.5
Agricultural expenses	31.3
Litigation	3.5

Most of these debts were the relics of the cotton boom. The first two causes together were responsible for 57.7 per cent of the total indebtedness of the District.

Following were the main sources from which loans were borrowed by the agriculturists:—

Source	Amount Rs.	Percentage of the total debt.
Government Taccavi	1,73,311	1.54
Co-operative Societies (Credit)	3,59,549	2.21
Landlords	5,85,144	3.06
Mahajans	1,53,36,052	93.19

The above Table shows that *mahajans* were still the most prominent financiers who lent 93.19 per cent of loans to the agriculturists of the District. To sum up, it was found that 41 per cent of the cultivators were free from debt and 59 per cent were indebted. Of the indebted, five per cent were hopelessly indebted.

Rate of Interest

As regards the rates of interest in this District, the Committee found

1. The C.P Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee Report, 1929-30, Vol. II. p 672.
2 Ibid.

them higher than those of many other Districts of the then Central Provinces. The main reason behind these higher rates was said to be "the tightness of money in the period of reaction after the cotton boom[1]. The rates ranged from 20 to 37½ per cent. At 20 per cent the total annual interest charges were then calculated to be Rs. 32,50,813 or four times the total land revenue demand.[2] These annual interest charges then naturally used to absorb a considerable portion of the net profit of cultivators. It amounted, at 20 per cent, to Rs. 94 per annum per family.[3]

The Report of the Banking Enquiry Committee was followed by a spate of legislations for the protection of debtors. The Government enacted the Central Provinces and Berar Debt Conciliation Act, 1933 (which was subsequently amended by an Act in 1934. and two each in 1935, 1936 and 1937). The year 1934 witnessed the enactment of the Central Provinces Usurious Loans (Amendment) Act, and Money-Lenders' Act. The latter Act was amended thrice till 1940 In 1937 the Central Provinces Protection of Debtors' Act for the protection of debtors from molestation and intimidation at the hands of creditors was also passed. The object behind the Debt Conciliation Act was to reduce the quantum of debt and facilitate clearing of debts in easy instalments. The Act was in operation for a period of six and half years. Debt Conciliation Boards were established at Khandwa, Burhanpur and Harsud in 1935, 1936 and 1938, respectively. As a result the debt of Rs. 155 lakhs was reduced to about Rs. 76 lakhs, that is, by over 50 per cent.[4] To afford further relief to the indebted agriculturists under the provisions of the Central Provinces and Berar Relief of Indebtedness Act, 1939, the Debt Relief Courts were established in the District by replacing Debt Conciliation Boards. The Act further reduced the debt of the heavily indebted cultivators of the District to a considerable extent The reduction was 23 per cent and 38 per cent according to the calculations of the debtors and the creditors, respectively.[5] The Act remained in force for about three years and was amended thrice. In 1944, about aboriginal cultivators it was observed that, "taking the District as a whole the aboriginals have suffered far less loss of land here than in most of the Districts" of the Province.

Later in the year 1952-53 it was found that "the extent of debts of the cultivators" was light and not heavy, and as such with the decrease in debt, general condition of the cultivators improved.[6]

Role of Private Money-Lenders and Financiers

The history of indebtedness in the District, for a period of the Century

1. Ibid, p. 674.
2. Ibid.
3. Ibid.
4. Forecast Report on the Resettlement of Nimar, 1952-53 p. 23.
5. Ibid, p. 24.
6. Ibid.

traced in the foregoing pages, clearly brings out the firmly entrenched position of private money-lenders, viz., *sahukars* or *mahajans*, even in the face of severe competition from other credit agencies and enactment of legislations restricting and regulating their activites in the field of rural finance.

The dominance of private money-lender in the field of rural finance stems from the operational flexibility and variety of purposes for which credit is made available to villagers. Hence he occupied the pivotal position in the village economy, despite his occasional unscrupulous dealings. It is an established fact that agricultural operations are generally financed through borrowed capital. This necessitated an agency which could supply short and intermediate credit requirements of agriculturists. The money-lender supplies funds for every conceivable purpose without any detailed enquiry about the credit worthiness, etc. The small cultivator depends on him for seed and also for his own maintenance during the period that must elapse before the harvest is ready. The seasonal loans are payable in six to eight months' time at varying rates of interest. For intermediate loans the rates vary according to the credit worthiness of the borrower and nature of the security offered. Repayment of loan is not a cause of serious worry for him for when debt begins to accumulate he usually obtains a written bond from the villager or insists on the land being mortgaged. During the 'sixties of the last Century with an in increase in trade on account of the introduction of railways, the money-lenders also financed trade to some extent, leading to the extension of the field of their operations to urban trade. During the first decade of this Century other agencies, viz., co-operatives, entered into the field. Commercial banks also extended their area of operation, yet *mahajan* or professional money-lender continued to dominate the rural scene. During the late 'thirties the Banking Enquiry Committee assessed that about 93.19 per cent of the total debt in the District was owed to *mahajans*, as stated earlier. In urban centres also the principal source of credit to individual, who have little security to offer, continues to be the age-old professional money-lender or *mahajan*. Traders and artisans generally borrow from him.

Till mid-'thirties, the innocent villagers continued to be exploited by the relentlessly unscrupulous *mahajans* through their underhand dealings and malpractices. Thereafter the Government enacted the Central Provinces and Berar Money-Lenders' Act, 1934 (XIII of 1934) as a protective measure. The Act was amended in 1936 to extend the coverage to mortgages in pending appeals, and required registration of money-lenders on payment of annual fees. The Act was further amended in 1937, and again in 1940. Burhanpur being a commercially advanced town, also became an important centre of money-lenders, while Khandwa trailed next. Besides, every village at its helm preserved the unfailing authority of the village money-lender, the *sahukar*. The internal trade of the District, and many of the agricultural enterprises are still dependent on them, the reason for which is not far to seek. Commercial banks are mainly centralized in towns, and co-operative credit movement has still not

reached the massess in the District. The dependence on this agency can be seen from the number of registered money-lenders in the District given below.—

Year	Number	Year	Number	Year	Number
1951	694	1956	661	1961	716
1952	857	1957	707	1962	698
1953	697	1958	643	1963	704
1954	651	1959	645	1964	722
1955	719	1960	650	1965	800

The money-lenders now advance money mainly against the pledge of gold and silver ornaments, but in certain cases, they also advance money against the mortgage of houses, conditional sale of lands, and promissory notes.

As stated earlier, Burhanpur and Khandwa are important centres of money-lenders. However, in 1964 there were only 86 registered money-lenders in Khandwa Tahsil and 152 in Harsud Tahsil.

Joint-Stock Banks

Besides the sources of credit and finance mentioned earlier the others of comparatively recent origin are the commercial banks, co-operative credit agencies, etc. The commercial banks which are the main component of modern banking structure, specialize only in certain types of economic activity because of their structure, method of business, etc. The general functions of these institutions are, assistance to business and industry through advances and loans, over-drafts, discounting of *hundis*, etc., and other remittance facilities to its customers. They also act as agents for the purchase and sale of goods. Apart from these, they receive deposits in current, fixed and savings accounts, for which interest is paid. Sometimes they also act as custodians of valuables and jewellery and maintain lockers for the purpose at a nominal charge. Thus, instead of production, marketing of agricultural produce interests them much. Hence the location of banks at the urban centres.

Modern banking institution came into existence in the District with the establishment of a branch of the then Imperial Bank of India (now the State Bank of India) in 1920 at Khandwa. Later its branches were also opened at Burhanpur, and a Treasury Pay-Office at Harsud in 1961. Since 1926 to 1941 there was only one commercial bank at Khandwa. However, in 1946 the number of commercial banks increased to 10, six at Burhanpur and four at Khandwa. In 1952, only six banks remained in the field of which three each were at Khandwa and Burhanpur.[1]

1 Statistical Abstract of Madhya Pradesh, 1954-55 p 370, (Figures relate to places having population of 50,000 and above).

The Laxmi Bank, Ltd., which had established its branches at Khandwa and Burhanpur in 1946, functioned well till 1960 when it went into liquidation. A branch of the Punjab National Bank Ltd., was also opened at Khandwa in 1950. The Devakaran Nanji Bank Ltd., has also opened its branch at Burhanpur.

The branches of six joint-stock banks are functioning in the District. Their names and location are.—

1. State Bank of India Ltd., Khandwa.
2. State Bank of India Ltd., Burhanpur.
3. State Bank of India Ltd., (Pay-Office) Nepanagar.
4. State Bank of India Ltd., (Pay-Office) Harsud.
5. Punjab National Bank, Ltd., Khandwa.
6. Devakaran Nanji Bank, Ltd., Burhanpur.

The volume of business transacted during the year 1960 and 1961 by the State Bank branches and Devakaran Nanji Banking Co. Ltd., together was Rs. 41.81 crores and Rs. 49.71 crores, respectively. The rates of interest charged by the State Bank on advances like overdrafts, demand loans and cash-credits depend upon the types of securities/goods offered. On overdrafts, rates varied from 4½ per cent to 7½ per cent; on demand loans the variation in the rates was from 5 per cent to 7 per cent, and on cash-credit, 5½ per cent to 7 per cent. Slightly lower rates are charged on loans/cash-credits granted to small-scale industries and co-operative institutions. The Nimar District Co-operative Bank, Ltd is being given overdraft facility against Government securities @ 4½ per cent (i.e., ½ per cent below State Bank's advance rate) Agriculturists are granted small loans against their produce upto Rs. 10,000 @ 5½ per cent (i.e., ½ per cent over State Bank's advance rate), if they deposite their produce in the godowns of State Ware Housing Corporation, and offer the receipts issued by the Corporation to the Bank as security.

Defence Efforts

Following the Indo-Chinese conflict in 1962, efforts were made to collect funds for the National Defence. The commercial banks and post-offices in the District also played prominent role in the collection of funds From the year 1962 to June, 1965 the total amount of cash collection stood at Rs. 10,90.537. Gold and gold ornaments weighing 6,633.852 grams, and silver and silver ornaments weighing 809.600 grams were also collected during the period.

The Co-operative Credit Societies and Banks

Co-operative societies as a source of credit existed in the District even prior to the establishment of Banks for commercial credit. The Nimar District Co-operative Central Bank was established in November, 1911, even prior to the passing of Co-operative Societies Act, in 1912. It funcioned with a meagre capi-

tal of Rs. 6,150. Only 19 co-operative credit societies were affiliated to it which came into existence after the passing of the Act in 1912. Though an improved system of finance on co-operative basis was introduced sometime in 1907-08 by establishing a Co-operative Bank of Weavers,[1] yet the movement gained momentum only after the passing of Co-operative Societies Act, 1912. Revapur Primary Credit Society in Harsud Tahsil was the first to appear on the scene which is now amalgamated in Majwadi Village Service Society. Three years later, at the beginning of the First World War, i.e., in 1914-15, the number of co-operative credit societies had increased to 48 and by the end of the War, i.e., in 1918-19 the number had further increased to 111.

Spanning over two decades, the tempo of growth of the co-operative movement in the District became slow and we see that after attaining a high level (170) in 1924-25, the number of credit societies began to decline and in 1930-31 the number of credit societies was 99 only. Yet the economic depression which had set in the 'twenties, was well resisted and very few of the societies went into liquidation. The remaining societies showed definite strength and, as such, in the following years steady improvement was registered. Thus at the beginning of the World War Second, i.e., in the year 1939 there were 194 societies in the District. Year-wise number of societies for the Second World War period was as under —

Year	No. of credit societies	Year	No. of credit societies
1938-39	194	1942-43	217
1939-40	199	1943-44	223
1940-41	204	1944-45	197
1941-42	206	1945-46	191

The above figures indicate that during the War years there was a steady increase in the number of co-operatives, but as the tempo of the War activities began to slow down its effect was manifest in the sphere of co-operative credit also. After the termination of the War, the lowest figure was reached gradually in the year 1950-51 when only 189 co-operatives remained in the District.

Hereafter ushered in an era of economic planning, and co-operative credit was given a place of prominence in the planning activities. As a result, the number of credit societies began to increase steadily year after year reaching the figure of 482, the highest, in the year 1960-61, i.e., at the end of Second Five Year Plan period. By June, 1961 about 87 per cent of the total number of villages in the District and about 30 per cent of the total agricultural population was brought within co-operative fold.

The co-operative credit societies advance loans to their members against the security of their landed property to the extent of 50 per cent of the value or at Rs. 35 per acre, subject to a maximum of Rs. 1,500 irrespective of their holdings.

1. Report on the Industrial Survey Committee, 1910, p. 43.

Prior to the year 1948. the members were required to execute mortgage deeds in favour of their respective societies and the societies used to assign the rights so acquired in favour of the Bank. But by an amendment of section 19 (A) of the Co-operative Societies Act in the year 1958, the members are now required to execute a declaration in favour of the society which has the same effect as that of mortgage deed.

In the earlier stages the rate of interest charged by the society from its members was as high as 16 per cent but the rate has since been scaled down and at present it is 9 per cent.

In the planned development of the various sectors of the economy, co-operation steadily assumed fresh dimensions in the successive Five Year Plans of the Country as well as of the State. Great stress was laid on extending the scope of co-operative movement during Plan periods, and as such, the activities other than credit were also brought under the co-operative fold during the Third Plan.

The Table below shows the progress of all types of societies made during the first four years of the Third Plan.—

Nature of Society/Bank	Name of Society/Bank	Year			
		1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65
District level	1. Central Co-operative Bank	1	1	1	1
	2. Land Mortgage Bank	1	1	1	1
	3. District Union	1	1	1	1
Agricultural Credit Society	1 Primary Co-operative Societies	336	293	168	64
	2. Service Co-operative Societies	108	141	248	288
	3. Large-sized Societies	10	10	10	10
Non-Agricultural Credit Society	—	11	11	11	12
Non-Credit Societies	—	57	65	82	102
Better Farming Societies	—	10	10	10	10
Collective Farming Societies	—	—	1	1	1
Joint Farming Societies	—	—	6	9	16
	TOTAL	535	540	542	506

The gradual decline of the primary credit societies in the successive years of Third Plan period was owing to the increased emphasis on the scheme of revitalization of these into 'service societies.' As a result, the societies in the former category decreased from 336 in 1961 to 64 in 1964, whereas service societies increased from 108 in 1961 to 288 in 1964. Ten large-sized societies have also been functioning in the District. In the year 1957-58 five large-sized societies were organized in Khandwa Block at Jawar, Kalmukhi, Sahejala, Bhamgarh, and Jasawadi. Subsequently, in the year 1958-59, five more such societies were organized in Shahpur Block at Shahpur, Icchapur, Loni, Phopnar and Daryapur. Each of these societies was provided Rs. 8,500 by the State

Government towards its share capital and Rs. 1,290 by way of staff subsidy. Of these 10 large-sized societies three, viz., Sahejala, Kalmukhi and Icchapur have their godowns constructed, and the Government aid of Rs. 10,000 was provided to each of them for the purpose.

The industrial co-operative societies which received assistance from various sources increased from 9 in 1958-59 to 33 in September 1962. In the year 1962 paid-up share capital of 30 of these societies was Rs. 91,023 as against Rs. 56,298 in 1958-59. The number of members increased from 1,047 to 2,258 during this period. The targets and achievements in respect of the scheme approved for the District during the Third Plan is given in Appendix A.

Nimar District Co-operative Central Bank Ltd., Khandwa

Organised and registered in the year 1911, as stated earlier, the Co-operative Central Bank started with a meagre share capital of Rs. 6,150, with 19 affiliated societies. In the later years the number of affiliated societies increased rapidly, and within five years of its establishment, the number increased to 106.

During the great economic depression of the 'thirties the Bank faced a severe financial crisis. As such, some affiliated societies were swept-off their feet and had to be liquidated, involving a sum of Rs. 99,827 outstanding against them as loan. As such the liabilities of the Bank increased to a considerable extent, which placed it in a difficult position. However, the Bank was enabled to over come the crisis by granting facility of payment by annual instalments. This enabled it to emerge revitalized in the late 'thirties, as a result of which the number of affiliated societies increased considerably.

During the year 1943-44 the number of affiliated societies further increased and the amount of loans outstanding against them stood at Rs. 1,54,304. The working capital of the Bank aggregated to Rs 3,63,767 and the paid up share capital amounted to Rs. 63,310.

The position of the Bank in respect of share capital, funds, loans outstanding and affiliated societies from 1950-51 to 1962-63 is given below.—

Year	No. of affiliated societies	No of members of societies	Paid-up share capital Rs.	Reserve fund Rs.	Working capital Rs.	Loans outstanding Rs.
1950-51	189	2,582	75,890	69 989	4,77,930	2,95,211
1951-52	195	2,706	79,820	75 115	5,97,751	3,57,959
1952-53	225	3,496	89,115	81,491	8,10,448	5,62,224
1953-54	243	4,681	1,01,036	89,494	10,52,500	7,83,768
1954-55	302	6,396	1,23,260	97 543	12,35,456	10,60,184
1955-56	336	7,187	1,68 585	1,15,787	14,85,726	12,92 895
1956-57	329	8,364	2,00,760	1,23,987	18,64,285	13,12,296
1957-58	363	10,944	3,14,060	1,30,546	30,19,948	22,36,597

Year	No. of affiliated societies	No. of members of societies	Paid-up share capital Rs.	Reserve fund Rs.	Working capital Rs.	Loans outstanding Rs.
1958-59	445	16,120	5,69,070	1,41,796	45,86,048	36,41,109
1959-60	489	18,279	8,17,070	1,66,341	53,66,817	41,76,370
1960-61	464	21,998	9,25,155	1,87,933	67,55,542	52,72,734
1961-62	464	31,151	10,14,590	2,12,912	85,32,603	74,70,961
1962-63	445	37,554	11,35,260	2,42,639	1,17,03,801	98,65,985

The paid-up share capital of the Bank increased from Rs. 0.76 lakh in 1950-51 to Rs. 11.35 lakhs in 1962-63. Similarly, reserve fund increased from Rs. 0.70 lakh to Rs. 2.43 lakhs and working capital from Rs. 4.78 lakhs to Rs. 117.04 lakhs during the same period.

The Bank provides short-term and medium-term loans to the agriculturists and non-agriculturists through its member societies. Medium-term loans have been started very recently. As a matter of policy, the Bank has stopped financing the individuals since 1960-61. So far as the non-agriculturists are concerned, they are financed only through the agency or weavers' societies, out of the funds provided by the Reserve Bank of India. The Bank has also started financing the marketing societies. The following Table gives the details regarding the short and medium-term loans advanced by the Co-operative Central Bank, Khandwa from 1961 to 1964.—

(In Rs.)

Year	Fresh loans advanced during the year		Loans outstanding (30th June)	
	Short-term	Medium-term	Short-term	Medium-term
1961	59,46,594	4,68,881	47,65,095	5,07,638
1962	70,51,967	2,41,780	69,96,229	4,74,733
1963	94,22,406	8,08,951	90,10,412	10,30,043
1964	93,15,827	12,59,514	95,67,670	18,79,060

The Bank has been steadily trying to reduce its rate of interest charged to its member societies. Till the 30th June, 1955 the rate of interest was 10 per cent. This was reduced in 1955-56 to 9 per cent per annum and from the 1st July, 1957 it was further reduced to 8 per cent. After two years, i.e., from the 1st July, 1959 the rate was reduced to 7½ per cent. With a view to helping the Grow More Food Campaign, the Bank was making advances to the members at 6¼ per cent for the purchase of oil engines and pumping-sets.

The Bank opened its branches (pay-offices) at Burhanpur and Harsud in 1956-57. These have developed into full-fledged branches since 1960-61 and are carrying on banking business in their respective areas.

Khandwa Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank Ltd., Khandwa

This Bank was established and registered in the year 1937 at Khandwa. The share capital of the Bank at its inception was Rs. 4,185, the value of each share being Rs. 5. By 1941-42 the share capital of the Bank rose to Rs. 5,431 and in the year 1946-47 to Rs. 6,720. The number of members at this time consisted of 90 borrowing and 41 non-borrowing ones. After 1946-47 the Bank made rapid strides and by the end of 1951-52 the share capital increased to Rs. 12,198, contributed by 200 borrowing and 49 non-borrowing members. In the year 1958-59 the Bank had a share capital of Rs. 28,127 with a membership consisting of 514 borrowing and 57 non-borrowing ones. By 1961-62 the share capital had risen to Rs. 48,859 with 779 borrowing and 57 non-borrowing members.

The Bank advances long term loans to its members for a variety of purposes, viz., the redemption of mortgages on lands or other valuable property, improvement of land and methods of cultivation, liquidation of old debts and purchase of land in order to effect consolidation of holdings so as to secure more efficient and economic cultivation of the land.

For the purposes, mentioned above, the Bank advanced Rs. 40,625 by the year 1941-42 to 45 members. By the year 1951-52 the amount advanced increased to Rs. 2,56,590 benefiting 115 members. The financing further increased to Rs. 10,12,680 to 584 members in the year 1957-58.

As regards the rate of interest, till the year 1940, the Bank was getting loans from the C.P. Co-operative Bank at the rate of 4½ per cent, and the Mortgage Bank was advancing funds to its members at the rate of 6½ per cent. The C.P. Co-operative Bank raised its rate of interest to 5 per cent after 1940, and consequently, the interest rate on loans was raised by the Mortgage Bank to 7 per cent and later to 8 per cent in November, 1961.

The amount of loan obtained by the Bank from the State Co-operative Bank increased from Rs. 7.24 lakhs in 1959-60 to Rs. 9 82 lakhs in 1961-62.

Till the year 1951-52 the recoveries were nearly 80 per cent. From 1952-53 due to failure of crops continuously for four years owing to insufficiency of rains, the Bank could effect nearly 60 to 70 per cent recoveries only. The position regarding loans advanced and loans outstanding from 1960-61 to 1963-64 was as under.—

Year	Loans Advanced Rs.	Loans Outstanding Rs.
1960-61	1,74.030	8,03,246
1961 62	3,50,575	10 57,121
1962-63	6,92,650	16,25,872
1963-64	2,43,050	16,31,519

GENERAL AND LIFE INSURANCE

Prior to the establishment of Life Insurance Corporation of India in September, 1956, the branch-offices of the following leading insurance companies were carrying on the life as well as general insurance business in the District.—

1. The Oriental General and Life Insurance Co. Ltd., Bombay.
2. New India Insurance Co. Ltd., Bombay.
3. Hindustan Co-operative Insurance Co. Ltd., Bombay.
4. New Life Insurance Co. Ltd.

Besides these leading Indian Companies a few foreign companies, too, had their branches in the District. Of these more than three-fourths of the insurance business was conducted by the branch of the Oriental General and Life Insurance Company.

With the nationalization of Life Assurance business in September, 1956, all Indian and foreign insurers ceased to carry on life assurance business. All such business was entrusted to Life Insurance Corporation of India, with divisional branches at various places. At Khandwa, a branch-office was opened in the same year under Central Zone. Till the year 1958 the jurisdiction of this branch extended over five districts, viz., East Nimar and West Nimar, Seoni, Chhindwara and Betul. Since 1959, the jurisdiction of this branch was reduced to only two Districts of East Nimar and West Nimar. The Corporation transacts life assurance business through a number of field officers and agents in the District. The main functions of the Corporation are the collection of premia, giving loans to policy-holder, investing funds in Government securities, treasury bills, shares and debentures of Joint Stock Companies, etc. The following Table reviews the business conducted by this branch, from 1957 to 1961.—

Particulars	Years				
	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961
Area of jurisdiction (number of district)	5	5	2	2	2
Number of agents on roll	734	764	258	253	231
Number of active agents	251	177	246	233	208
Number of field officers	12	15	9	11	13
Number of policies	2,009	2,263	2,096	2,635	2 119
Amount Insured (Rs in lakh)	66.58	93.10	67.27	81,46	75.65
Proposals received (Rs. in lakh)	79.49	109.02	76.36	93.77	88.42
Risk covered (Rs. in lakh)	—	56.31	66 99	—	—
Amount advanced as loans on policies (Rs. in lakh)	66 58	93.10	54.10	81 46	75.55

The Life Insurance Corporation has also undertaken fire, marine and other general insurance business with effect from April, 1964.

STATE ASSISTANCE TO INDUSTRIES

The need for State assistance to industries was emphasised for the first time in the report on the Industrial Survey of the former Central Provinces and Berar, 1908-09, and later by the Indian Industrial Commission, 1916. Yet it was not till 1933 that the Central Provinces and Berar State Aid to Industries Act, 1933 was enacted. Due to the restrictive character of the provisions of the Act, neither did it prove of great assistance to the existing industries nor in promoting new industries. observed the Provincial Industrial Committee of Central Provinces and Berar, 1946.[1] As a result, the Act was suitably amended in 1946 and 1947. This empowered the Government to form a limited company with the object of providing industrial credit and also enabled the State to run an industry as a State monopoly or as a State-managed concern.

Under the State Aid to Industries Act, 1958 the Industries Department of the State Government sanctioned loans to various small industries in the District as detailed below:—

Year	Amount of loan given (Rs.)	Industries for which granted.
1954-55	12,000	Ready-made garments and tailoring, furniture, leather, shoe-making, gold-smithy, book-binding, printing presses, engineering and repairing, musical instruments, toys, rope making, bamboo and mat-weaving, brick manufacturing, cloth-dyeing and printing, brass utensils, trunks, baskets and boxes manufacturing industries, etc.
1955-56	18,600	
1956-57	23,100	
1957-58	25,175	
1958-59	39,965	
1959-60	24,038	
1960-61	69,000	
1961-62	45,000	
1962-63 (till August end)	30,600	

Besides, industries also take advantage of the hire-purchase system. The following Table gives the cost of machines recommended and sanctioned by the Industries Department under the scheme, during the period 1960-61 to 1962-63:—

Year	Amount in Rs.			
	Recommended	Accepted	Rejected	Sanction awaited
1960-61	11,355	—	—	11,355
1961-62	52,955	42,982	9,973	—
1962-63 (Sept. '62)	1,91,279	1,26,597	—	64,682

Apart from these a few other Government Departments also assist the development of small-scale industries in the District. The M.P. Village Indus-

1. Provincial Industries Committee Report, C. P. and Berar, 1946, p 89.

tries Board sanctioned Rs. 24,985 to the oil-industry in the District during the year 1961-62.

Madhya Pradesh Financial Corporation

Though the Provincial Industries Committee, 1946, visualized the need of State-aided agency to meet the financial requirements of large industries yet it was not till 1956 that the provisions of the erstwhile Madhya Bharat Financial Corporation, established under the State Financial Corporations Act, 1951[1] were extended to the whole of the reorganised Madhya Pradesh, after its formation in November, 1956. The Corporation was renamed as Madhya Pradesh Financial Corporation with headquarters at Indore The main function of the Corporation is to supplement the activities of Industrial Finance Corporation of India, by assisting the private enterprise through long and medium-term credit to qualified small industrial concerns in the region. In 1962, the scope of the Corporation was extended by an amendment to the State Financial Corporation Act 1951, so as to widen the scope of industrial concerns for grant of loan to hotel, transport industry, and for the development of any contiguous area of land as in industrial estate.

The loans are granted against adequate security, such as, first legal mortgage of land, industrial plant, etc., and are advanced in suitable instalments. The limit on the loan was also raised to Rs. 20 lakhs from Rs. 10 lakhs in case of public limited companies and co-operatives. The loans are repayable in fixed number of instalments, not exceeding 20 and interest dependable on the money-market conditions. At present the rate of interest is 7½ per cent per annum.

Since its inception, the Corporation received 11 applications from the industrialists in the District, involving an amount of Rs. 51,20,000. A sum of Rs. 22,23,900 was sanctioned, of which Rs. 10,44,900 was actually advanced till January, 1966.

CURRENCY AND COINAGE

The existence of the system of some form of currency and coinage in this region appears to be as old as the history of region. During the Mughal rule the existence of a large number of mints in the region, was recorded by Capt. Forsyth. Gold and silver were the chief repository of value, and were converted into coins of the region in settlement of claims. Burhanpur had one such mint, recorded Capt. Forsyth in 1868-69, which minted 'Burhanpur rupee.' As no uniformity of coinage and currency existed till 1835, money-changing business was an important function of the indigenous bankers. After the region ceded to British, it seems that coins prevalent in British India were extended to this region also and no separate currency for the area was in circulation.

1. The erstwhile Government of Madhya Bharat. Notification No. 3728/XIII/1, dated 30th June, 1955.

A landmark in the currency reform was the introduction of decimal system of currency in 1957. The reform though created an initial difficulty has become popular after a period of transition. Trading community was, however, quick to follow it. Gradually, the old currency has been de-monetized, which hastened the complete change-over to the new system. All the transactions are now carried on in new currency.

TRADE AND COMMERCE

According to 1961 Census, 11,511 "workers" were engaged in trade and commerce in the District. Participation in this was 3.3 per cent of working force, being maximum, i.e., 4.3 in the most urbanized Burhanpur Tahsil and the least, i.e., 1 per cent in entirely rural Harsud Tahsil. In fact 68.5 per cent of the "workers" in trade and commerce were returned from urban areas of the District. Whole-sale trade employs 8.6. per cent of the "workers", majority of these being engaged in the trade of cereals and pulses. Of the persons engaged in retail more than two-fifths (44 per cent) are in retail trading in cereals, pulses, vegetables, sugar, oil, fish, dairy products, etc., followed by trading in fibres, yarns, dhoti, hosiery products etc., which accounts for 9.5 per cent of the "workers."

Course of Trade

The antiquity of the region comprising Mahismati, which formed part of Avanti, and its situation on the important ancient trade route speaks of its being an important trade centre in the hoary past. During the reign of Faruqui Kings of Khandesh, when Burhanpur was established as capital, the region had well developed manufacturing and trading activities. Vivid account of the same is given in *Ain-i-Akbari* which records that Burhanpur "is inhabited by people of all countries, and handicrafts-men ply a thriving trade."[1] As has been stated earlier, Burhanpur attained the height of its prosperity during the reign of Shah Jehan.

Tavernier, a French traveller of the 17th Century, who visited the city in 1641 and 1658 remarked that there was great trade in the town of Burhanpur. Very transparent kind of muslin, woven at Burhanpur was then exported to "Persia, Turkey, Muscovie, Poland, Arabia, Grand Cairo and other places."[2] Some of these, dyed in various colours and with flowers, were used in Europe by women for veils and scarfs. Fabrics beautifully woven with silk and gold or silver threads, and having no reverse were exported to Poland, being in great demand there. *Ornis*, manufactured of half-cotton and half-gold or silver and costing Rs. 10 to Rs. 150, were sold in abundance in Persia and Turkey where these served ladies of rank for the purpose of making scarfs and veils.'

Tavernier further observed that during the Mughal period Burhanpur Province used to export cotton. Both English and Dutch companies used to purchase and export spun-cotton in large quantities to Europe and unspun to the

1. Ain-i-Akbari, tr. by Jarret, Vol. II, p 223.
2. Jean Baptiste Tavernier, op. cit. p 51

"Red Sea, Hormuz, Bassora, and sometimes to the island of Sonde and to the Philippines."[1] "There was hardly another Province in the whole of India then, which had a greater abundance of cotton."

The famous mercantile town of Burhanpur had also a large export of indigo, averaging to Rs. 1 lakh per annum,[2] tobacco and opium exchanged with pepper owned by Dutch traders. Trade in jowar, fruits, betel leaves, and sandalwood was also in flourishing condition.

Such was the glorious tribute paid by the foreigners to the flourishing trade and commerce of the Burhanpur region during this period. Then followed the decline of the industries of the region. However, after the Mohammedan princess and nobles, the courts of Sindhias and Bhonslas of Nagpur, were great customer of luxury goods. But in course of time they were also superseded by the Britishers. The aliens did not find it in their country's interest to patronize or propagate the indigenous industry of any kind. As such, the hostile attitude of aliens forced the flourishing trade of the region to pass comparatively into oblivion at the dawn of the 18th Century.

The decay of indigenous cloth industry diverted the attention of the people to the other sectors of production and trade, viz., in foodgrains, etc., which was hitherto a neglected aspect. Nearly all the grains, gur, condiments, etc., used were imported from considerable distances. This aspect of the import trade of the District in foodgrains has been dealt with by Capt. Forsyth in his Settlement Report of 1868-69. Taking the actual production of foodgrains and working out total consumption requirements of the population, Capt. Forsyth estimated that "39 per cent of the food consumed has to be imported." The imports consisted chiefly of wheat from Hoshangabad and in a less degree of jowar, pulses, sugar, tobacco, and spices from Bombay District and salt chiefly from Rajputana and the Konkan.

According to the same authority the District did not 'raise any other agricultural produce except perhaps cotton, in excess of its own requirements.' However, allowing for the cotton-cloth requirements of the population in the District, Forsyth estimated that merely 6,600 maunds of cotton remained for export. Part of this was sent out in the shape of cloth and a part as raw material. Besides this, some portion of the produce of fruit trees, i. e., mango *mahua*, etc., was sent to Malwa and Khandesh. Nimari breed of cattle was also in demand outside the District, but their export was affected at this time because of the fall in the breeding activity of the cattle, increase in local demand for agricultural requirements, and 'immense cart-traffic between Khandwa and Central India caused by the railway.' Summarising the results of export-import trade of the District, Capt. Forsyth gave the total import figures of the District, exclusively for Railway plant as Rs. 20 lakhs. Of this amount, foodgrains accounted for

1. Ibid, Vol. II, p. 8
2. Ibid, p 9.

Rs. 15 lakhs, salt Rs. 1.50 lakhs, and English piece-goods Rs. 3 lakhs.

As against this estimate of imports he found that the District could spare "some Rs. two lakhs worth of cotton and fruits for export in exchange."[1]

With the construction of railway lines in the District about the year 1870, there was a change in the position of District trade. During the period 1883-84 to 1894-95 the annual average imports and exports by the rail, for Nimar Block,[2] reviewed by Montgomerie in 1901, showed that while the balance of trade was against the block as regards rice and cotton piece-goods, it was in favour of the block as regards raw cotton, jowar and bajra, til, wheat, gram pulses and *ganja*.[3]

The average net annual exports by rail, based on the estimates of Montgomerie in 1901, credited to the British Nimar between 1883-84 and 1894-95 are given below.—

Commodity	Quantity in ('000) maunds	Value in ('000) Rs.
Raw Cotton	40	690
Jowar and Bajra	80	115
Til	40	180
Wheat	20	60

The statistics of rail-borne trade compiled for four years, viz.. 1902-03 to 1905-06, showed that since 1894-95 the trade of the District had developed considerably within a span of these 10 years. The export of raw-cotton during this period registered a ten fold increase over the period, 1883-1895, and those of til-seed, four or five times as great, while there was no change in the quantum of export of jowar. There was no export of wheat from the District to any appreciable extent. The average exports for four years worked out to nearly 19 lakhs of maunds, valued at Rs 1.25 crores, rose to Rs 1.5 crores in 1905-06. The imports for four years averaged 16 lakh maunds, valued at Rs. 95 lakhs. The excess of exports over imports rose from Rs. 21 lakhs in 1902-03 to Rs. 53 lakhs in 1905-06. The position as above of the export-import trade did not represent the trade of Nimar District alone but included that of portions of Indore and Khandesh too. Still it was concluded that even allowing for this they are a striking indication of the wealth and prosperity of the District.

The principal items of export from the District at this period, i. e., 1902-06 were found to be raw-cotton, cotton and other oil-seeds. Til-seed was also exported, though in small quantity. In fact til-seed was an item of import by rail from Narmada Block. From Burhanpur, oil was exported to Khandesh and Berar.

1. Nimar Settlement Report, 1968-69, p. 230.
2. Nimar Block included some tracts of West Nimar also.
3. Nimar Settlement Report, 1911-14, p. 12.

Among the minor exports were castor-oil seeds, sunn hemp, *mahua*-flowers and *ganja*. Chillies, husks of *arhar* as a cattle feed and groundnut were also exported on a small scale. Among manufactured articles, small quantities of sealing wax, glass-globes, and wooden combs, all made at Burhanpur, were exported from the District.

Among the main items of imports were European and Indian cloth and piece-goods, salt, sugar, rice, wheat and kerosene. Rice was imported, both from Chhattisgarh and the Wainganga Districts and from Bombay and Bengal. In normal years, supply of wheat came from Hoshangabad and Narsimhapur but wheat was also brought from the United Provinces and the Punjab. Coal, coke and tobacco were also imported; the latter commodity came from Gujarat, copper vessels came from Nasik and Kanpur and brass vessels from these places and also from Harda and Handia. Coloured glass-ware was brought from Moradabad and building and paving stone from Hoshangabad. Unwrought iron came from Europe. From amongst the fruits, bananas were obtained from Bhusawal and Berar, figs in small quantities from Poona, Potatoes from Chhindwara through Jabalpur, and ornages from Nagpur. Vegetables were imported from Mhow and betel-vine from Berar and Madras.

The above pattern of export-import trade of the District at the beginning of the present Century does not appear to have undergone any substantial change even now.

During the period 1909 to 1933 there was a prosperous trade in the District. Cotton continued to be the chief commodity of export. The rail-borne trade of a few important commodities over the period is given below:—

(Quantity in tons)

Commodity (Annual average)		Period				
		1909-13	1913-18	1918-23	1923-28	1928-33
Cotton	Exports	15,860	18,375	21,120	27,713	21,916
	Imports	2,552	1,893	1,850	1,576	762
	Balance	+13,308	+16,482	+19,270	+22,142	+21,190
Jowar	Exports	4,050	3,306	822	747	1,032
	Imports	3,215	2,885	3,565	5,432	2,879
	Balance	+835	+421	—2,743	—4,665	—1,847
Total Merchandise						
	Exports	63,161	56,002	78,971	77,113	85,619
	Imports	84,494	79,123	94,808	1,30,579	1,06,320
	Balance	—21,333	—14,121	—15,837	—53,466	—20,701

Note:—The figures relate to the whole of Nimar Block which included some territories of West Nimar and Khandesh

The above Table reveals that the District maintained its surplus nature in respect of cotton exports, whereas in respect of jowar it remained deficit during this period. The establishment of textile mill at Burhanpur, and a number of ginning and pressing factories during the period was an index of the growing

trade of the District. Inspite of the rigours of depression which had set in the late 'twenties of the Century the volume of cotton trade showed slight strain but still formed the principal item of export trade. Approximately, 34,000 acres of land in the District is annually sown under cotton. Local consumption in the District is nominal, there being only one textile mill at Burhanpur. After ginning and pressing, considerable quantity of cotton is exported to almost all cotton-cloth manufacturing centres in India. The export of cotton from the District is chiefly controlled by the Cotton Merchants' Association, Khandwa. The commodity is mainly exported from Khandwa, Burhanpur and Bir. Of these, Khandwa is the main exporting centre of cotton bales in the District. The average imports of cotton at five[1] railway stations of the District during the early 'fifties ranged between 1,500 to 2,000 tons per annum, while during the same period exports ranged from 7,250 to 9,250 tons per year.[2] These figures, however, show a fall in the volume of export of cotton. To appreciate this fall, it is to be understood that rich pocket of this District was transferred to the erstwhile State of Madhya Bharat. Apart from this the area under cotton has also fallen owing to preferential treatment accorded to food-crops and implementation of Grow More Food Campaign. However, the balance of imports over exports trade in total merchandise increased from 31,000 tons in 1950-51 to 45,230 tons in 1952-53.[3]

The present pattern of export trade in the District still remains agriculture-oriented, viz., principally in cotton, foodgrains, oilseeds, and forest produce like timber, charcoal, and firewood Comparatively of recent origin is the Newsprint from Newsprint manufacturing unit located at Nepanagar in the District. The imports of unwrought iron and cotton cloth piece-goods is also a new trend.

The Table at Appendix A gives the export trade of cotton, general merchandise and Newsprint for a decade, commencing from 1953-54.

The course of export trade is more extensive than that of imports because of cotton and Newsprint which have a country wide market. Foodgrains, pulses, cotton-seeds, find large market in Uttar Pradesh, Madras and the Punjab. Groundnut and oil has got an important inter State market, principally to Uttar Pradesh, Bombay, Delhi, Punjab, etc.

The principal imports in Burhanpur town consist of foodgrains, fresh fruits, *kirana* articles, tobacco, manufactured cloth, yarn, utensils and unwrought iron and machinery from distant places. Grains and oil also form important items of imports into Khandwa town. The import trade of wheat and rice is generally intra State, whereas for other articles like hardware, cloth, sugar, kerosene oil, the adjoining States, viz., Maharashtra, Madras, etc., are the chief suppliers. Generally, the course of import trade is from the areas in south and

1 Khandwa, Burhanpur, Harsud, Bir and Nimarkhedi Railway station.

2 Forecast Report on the Resettlement of Nimar, 1953, p. 5

3 Ibid, p. 6

south-east of the District. The import trade of important commodities in the towns of Burhanpur and Khandwa during the past decade may be seen in Appendices A. The following Table shows a few important commodities entering into the municipal limits of Khandwa and Burhanpur towns in 1962-63.—

Name of Commodity	Quantity of Commodity in Qts.	
	Burhanpur	Khandwa
Food grains	239,189	206,985
Sugar	17,348	21,371
Jaggery	8,481	23,777
Ghee and vegetable ghee	2,830	3,308
Petrol (litres)	108,539	26,636
Cloth	3,221	4,761
Iron	9,141	12,365
Cotton (bales)	5,559	957

TRADE CENTRES

Mandis and Markets

There is no regulated market in the District. But in recent years Municipal Grain and Cotton Market, Khandwa has made considerable improvement, and it is more or less working on the lines of a regulated market under the supervision of Khandwa Municipal Committee. It now functions as one of the important *mandis* of the District where whole-sale transactions in various articles like cotton, grain, groundnut and oil, etc., take place. *Adhatias* or brokers dominate the transactions in this *mandi*. Burhanpur, the old industrial and commercial centre, ranks as next important business centre in the District. In the Municipal Grain and Cotton Market, established in 1906, brisk business in cotton, cloth, grain, oil and other important commodities is transacted. In addition, whole-sale business in *mung*, *urd*, timber and *til* is also transacted in both these *mandis*. As regards total turn-over at these centres statistics are not available but an idea can be formed from the statistics of rail-borne trade and export figures discussed in an earlier section relating to 'course of trade.' Bir is also an important centre of marketing in cotton and coal in the District.

Among the important retail marketing centres, besides Khandwa and Burhanpur, mention may be made of Harsud, Bir, Pandhana, Shahpur, Mundi, Nimarkhedi and Nepanagar. Rural marketing centres also carry on brisk retail business. Besides agricultural commodities, retail trade in cloth, silver, stationery, etc., is also transacted at Khandwa and Burhanpur.

Fairs

From time immemorial religious fairs have been an inevitable part of the region's community life. Later, they started adopting commercial character also, of which the earliest reference in the District relates to 1848, when three fairs

were important in the region, viz., Omkar-Mandhata in October/November, Singaji fair just after Dussehra festival and Khandwa fair in the month of January.[1] At all these places the Government built "lines and raised platforms of masonry for the traders to set their shops on." In course of time business conducted at these fairs became improtant commercially.

Capt. Forsyth during the course of Settlement Operation of 1868-69 recorded that Mandhata fair attracted about 50,000 persons and the "booths from all parts of the country covered the banks of the river. About rupees half a lakh worth of goods usually changed hands".[2] Further he observed that Singaji fair, attended by 15,000 persons, was an important cattle fair. Business of the value of about Rs. 1 lakh was transacted at the fair.

Singaji fair at Harsud has still retained its religious-cum-commercial character. It now lasts for about 10 days. Though trade in all merchandise is transacted, yet cattle forms an important item of trade. About 50,000 persons attend this fair from the neighbouring areas. Now a cattle-show is also organised here and prizes are awarded for best animals of the Nimari breed under the supervision of Janapada Sabha, Harsud. Mandhata fair still attracts about 2,00,000 devotees from distant places. The fair is held twice a year. Malgaon cattle-fair, in Harsud Tahsil is also an important fair. Other fairs where brisk trade is carried on are Balaji *mela* at Burhanpur which lasts for about 15 days in Asvina, Shabvali Urs at Burhanpur, Khwaja Chalni Shab Chisti Urs at Rahipura are also important.

Rural Marketing Centre

Besides these fairs 'there have been a large number of important rural marketing centres where brisk business in articles of local consumption was transacted. Apart from Pandhana the oldest and the best weekly market, visited by about six to eight thousand persons in 1851, Bhamgarh, Khirala Rustampur, Mandhata, Dhangaon, Punasa, Ahmadpur, Borgaon, Jaswadi, Goal, Mundi, Atood khas, Jawar, Sulgaon, Shahpur, Shahara, Bambhada, and Barud were other important weekly marketing centres where people of the surrounding villages assembled to purchase their requirements. Russell, in 1907 recorded the existence of 41 weekly markets, principal of these being Khandwa, Pandhana, Mundi and Sulgaon, noted for cattle, timber and grain trade. These places still retain their importance. Now there are 57 weekly and fortnightly markets in the District, Tahsil break-up of which is given below as in 1961.

Tahsil	No. of weekly or fortnightly markets	
	Urban	Rural
Khandwa	1	29
Harsud	.	13
Burhanpur	1	13
Total	2	55

1. Report on the Province of Nimar, 1856, p 11
2. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p 238.

The names of villages where these markets are being held may be seen in the Appendix B. A few important among them are Harsud, Malgaon, Bir, Khandwa and Baldi.

CO-OPERATIVE MARKETING

Till the early years of the 'twenties of the Century, non-credit co-operative movement had not made head-way in the District. There was no well organised co-operative marketing society, except two unregistered Agricultural Marketing Associations, one each at Khandwa and Bir. They used to deal in "cotton pool," agricultural implements, oil-engines, electric pumping-sets, fertilizers and improved variety of seeds. Established in 1922, and registered under Co-operative Societies Act in 1938, the Tahsil Co-operative Agricultural Processing and Marketing Association, Khandwa was started as an unregistered body with a share capital of about Rs. 6,000 The Association at Bir was established in 'thirties of the Century. An Agricultural Co-operative Marketing Association was also functioning during this period at Burhanpur which went into liquidation later.

The functions of marketing were also assumed by the Multipurpose Societies particularly in the years following Second World War. During 1950-51, the number of such societies and stores was 65 in the District.

Till the year 1957-58, three agricultural co-operative associations, mentioned earlier were functioning independently without any aid from the State Government. The Association at Bir and Burhanpur soon faced liquidation, and instead a depot was established by the Mahakoshal Marketing Society, Jabalpur. Consequent upon the recommendations of the Rural Credit Survey Committee for integrating the co-operative credit with marketing, the State Government sanctioned a scheme for the devlopment of co-operative marketing during the Second Plan period. As such, the State Plan envisaged the establishment of a Regional Co-operative Marketing Society at Khandwa. Consequently, the Co-operative Marketing Association, Khandwa, was converted into the Regional Co-operative Agricultural Marketing Society in 1958. Later after two years, i.e., in 1960, it was again transformed into Tahsil Co-operative Processing and Marketing Association, Ltd., Khandwa, having a share capital of Rs. 2.08 lakhs. It deals in controlled articles, viz., sheets, iron-flats, iron-squares and medicines for animals and plants. In addition it also distributes chemical fertilizers and cotton seeds, apart from "Cotton Pooling." In 1962-63 the income of the Society was Rs. 75,447 and expenditure Rs. 76, 364. In 1962 it established a branch at Bir also. Two more co-operative marketing societies were formed at Harsud and Burhanpur, respectively in May, 1959, and June, 1960 under the provisions of the Plan.

During the Second Plan period the State Government provided Rs. 20,000 towards share capital contribution, Rs. 15,000 as godown loan, and Rs. 5,000

each as godown and staff-subsidy to the co-operative marketing societies in the District. Similar financial provision has also been made in the Third Plan period towards assisting the co-operative marketing societies in the District It is intended to provide Rs. 25,000 each, towards share capital and godown loan (75 per cent as loan and 25 per cent as subsidy), apart from staff-subsidy of Rs. 4,500 to these societies.

In addition, the State Government has adopted a policy of transferring distribution of controlled commodities, viz., iron, cement, tin, etc., from individual dealers to the co-operative marketing societies. With this end in view, recently, licences to deal in the controlled articles have increasingly been granted to these societies. Besides this, the State Government has made arrangements for financial accommodation through the State Bank of India. The societies are also assisted in warehousing arrangements, etc., by the State Warehousing Corporation.

Cotton Pool Scheme

The co-operative marketing society of each Tahsil also deals in cotton, through the scheme of "cotton pool." Under this scheme the agriculturists deposit their improved variety of cotton with them. Since 1955 the pooled cotton is being collectively marketed either raw or after processing. It has been experienced that owing to this system the agriculturists get a premium of Rs. 15 to Rs. 20 per *mani* of four maunds. Formerly, the depot of Apex Marketing Society, Jabalpur, was conducting "cotton pool," at Burhanpur but after the formation of a Marketing Society at Burhanpur, the "cotton pool" is been conducted by this society. The growers who deposite their cotton in the pool are given 70 per cent of the value of cotton in advance. These societies render this service on commission basis and the rate of commission ranges from Rs. 1.50 to Rs. 2.0 per *mani*. The Table given below shows the quantity of cotton pooled at various centres by the different societies since 1955-56.—

(Quantity in Quintals)

Year	Co-operative Marketing Society/ Association			Total
	Khandwa	Bir	Burhanpur	
1955-56	605	2,301	396	3,302
1956-57	2,270	575	1,220	4,065
1957-58	5,917	1,724	3,176	10,817
1958-59	4,630	849	2,033	7,512

Formerly, the Apex Co-operative Marketing Society, Jabalpur used to finance the Societies/Associations. But now the Central Co-operative Bank, Khandwa advances funds for financing the 'cotton pool' business.

Industrial Co-operative Marketing Societies

Besides the co-operative marketing of agricultural produce, which owes its beginning in 'twenties in the District, the introduction of co-operative market-

ing of industrial products is of very recent origin. The movement covers mainly the hand and power-loom weavers' co-operatives and also the leather goods co-operatives. These are generally in the nature of production-cum-marketing societies. Six weavers' co-operative societies, covering 1,522 looms and 1,358 weavers carried on the business with their own funds and temporary local deposits. In 1958, Cess Fund Scheme was introduced and societies were financed to the tune of Rs. 1,68,465 for share and working capital and for establishing a dye-house. Grants and loans were also made available to them for their smooth working. In order to help these societies in marketing the produce, the State Government opened two Sale Depots in 1957-58. The Mahakoshal Co-operative Marketing Society also established a production centre and a dye-house at Burhanpur.

In September, 1962, 30 industrial co-operative societies were functioning in the District with a membership of 2,258 and a paid-up share capital of Rs. 91,006. All these societies were granted liberal financial assistance by the Government.

MERCHANTS' ASSOCIATIONS AND LABOUR ORGANISATIONS

With the growing trade and commercial activities during these days, associations and organisations of traders began to play a vital role in the community's life. There are many trade association in East Nimar, connected with different types of traders in the main centres of the District. The more important of these are given below.—

1. Grain, Seeds, Oil and General Merchants' Association, Khandwa.
2. Cotton Merchants' Association, Khandwa.
3. Burhanpur Chemist and Druggist Association, Burhanpur.
4. Kirana Merchants' Association, Burhanpur.
5. Sugar Merchants' Association, Burhanpur.
6. Gur Merchants' Association, Burhanpur.
7. Bidi Manufacturing Association, Burhanpur.
8. Sindhi Cloth Merchants' Association Burhanpur.
9. Sarafa Merchants' Association, Burhanpur.
10. Mishthan Vikreta Sangh, Burhanpur.
11. Hardware Merchants' Association, Burhanpur.
12. Krishak Adatiya Pritinidhi Mandal, Khandwa.

Most of these associations have been formed and registered with a view to bringing about closer co-operation among the members of the trade or industry concerned, protecting the interest of mercantile community, laying down a common policy and for devising ways and means for further promotion of

their business. Often the trade disputes of the merchants are referred to their respective associations for amicable settlement.

Dissemination of Trade News

There is no local newspaper which publishes market news in the District. However, there are a few agencies disseminating the ruling prices of agricultural commodities during agricultural season in Khandwa market in the dailies published elsewhere.

The important among them are.—

1. Mahavir Trading Company, Khandwa,
2. Maheshwari Trading Company, Khandwa.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

Old Weights and Measures

There was no uniformity in weights and measures for grains, prior to the year 1864. Each bazar used to have a *chauki* of its own. The average *chauki* used to be equivalent to 2½ seers of grain, although it varied from two to four seers at different places. In 1864, a standard *chauki*, equivalent to 4 seers of wheat was officially introduced, though in practice it ranged between three seers and eight *tolas* to four seers and 13 *tolas*. According to this measure 64 seers or 16 *chaukis* constituted a maund. Yet the old average *chauki* of 2½ seers of grain and old maund of 40 seers or 16 *chauki* were used in whole-sale transactions even after 1864. The unit measure for cotton was *kachcha* maund of 26 Government seers. In the Tapti valley, grain was then measured by the following scale.—

40 seers = 1 maund,
3 maunds = 1 *palla*,
30 maunds = 1 *Khandi*.

Later, these were replaced by official *chauki* of 4 seers. English yard was also introduced in the District during this period.

Writing about the scale of measures for grain used in Khandwa Tahsil, R V. Russell in 1907 stated as under.—

" One *mulia*	=	11¼ tolas		
One *ticha*	=	2 *mulias*	=	22½ tolas
One *tuli*	=	2 *tichas*	=	45 tolas
One *kangan*	=	2 *tulis*	=	90 tolas
One *ser*	=	2 *kangans*	=	4½ lbs.
One *chauki*	=	2 *sers*	=	9 lbs.

One *man*	=	16 *chaukis*	=	1 maund and 32 seers or 144 lbs.
One *mani*	=	10 *mans*	=	18 maunds."[1]

As stated above the weight of *chauki* measure varied in respect of different articles. Burhanpur Tahsil then had different scale of measures as observed by Russell and are given below.—

" One seer	=	80 tolas		
One *chauthia*	=	4 seers		
One *dola*	=	4 *chauthias*		
One *paili*	=	4 *dolas*	=	48 seers
One *map*	=	4 *pailis*	=	4 maunds and 32 seers."[2]

In Burhanpur town all things were then sold by weight. Scales of measures prevalent in Harsud Tahsil were yet different. Principal measures were *pai* of 90 tolas, the *kudo* of 8 *pais*, the *man* of 4 *kudos* and the *mani* of 12 *mans* or 10 *maunds* 32 seers.

During the same period the unit of measure of cotton was *palla*, which was equivalent to 3 maunds or 120 seers of clean cotton. Cotton seeds were weighed by the Government maund at Khandwa. At Burhanpur 3 maunds 10 seers, however, constituted one *palla*, while a *gathri* or bale of ginned-cotton contained 5 maunds or 400 lbs.[3]

New Weights and Measures

Prior to the introduction of metric weights and measures in 1960, the C.P. and Berar Weights and Measures of Capacity Act, (No. II of 1928) was in force in this District. Accordingly, the primary standard of weight was a *ser* a weight in metal when weighed in vacuum, to be 14,400 grains as determined under Section 14 of the Weights and Measures Act, 1878. Similarly the primary unit of capacity was *paili*, containing five-sixteenths of a gallon of water as determined under 1878 Act. The multiples and sub-multiples of primary standards of weights were, respectively, maund, equivalent to 40 *sers*, one *ser*=16 *chhatak*, one *chhatak*=five *tola*, one *tola*=12 *masha* and one *masha*=eight *ratti*. The multiples of measures of capacity were one-half part of the *paili* shall be *adholi*, a *katha*=four *pailis* and a *kuro*=eight *pailis*.

Metric Weights and Measures

The State Government enacted the M. P. Weights and Measures (enforcement) Act in 1959. Accordingly, the provisions of the said Act in respect of

1. Nimar District Gazetter, p. 132.
2. Ibid.
3. Ibid, pp. 132-133.

unit of mass were made applicable in this District from the 1st April, 1960, with two years, of transitional period during which the old weights continued, simultaneously. The use of metric weights was made compulsory from the 1st April, 1962. The provisions of the said Act in respect of length measure were made applicable with one year's transitional period from the 1st October, 1961. It was made compulsory from the 1st October, 1962. The measures of capacity were introduced from the 1st April, 1962 with one year's transitional period, and has been made compulsory from the 1st April 1963. Provision of the Act in respect of units of volume and area were introduced in the District from the 1st October, 1962 with a transitional period of six months, after which both these units were made compulsory from the 1st April, 1963, excluding transaction regarding land in case of the units of area.

CHAPTER VII

COMMUNICATIONS

The history of the District given in Chapter II shows that for centuries the Narmada valley was a border land between northern and southern India. The Khandwa gap or the low watershed between the Narmada and Tapti valleys is the only major break in the Satpuras which provide the way to the south. It was this gap which was of strategic importance in the past as a key to the south. But it is even now the corridor through which men and material flow by rail or road to south and south-western India.

OLD TIME ROUTES AND HIGHWAYS

"Vana Parva" of the *Mahabharat* is clear on this point that one of the three important routes in India crossed the District of East Nimar. Nala, the king of Nishadha, showed his queen Damyanti, a road leading to Vidarbha, "these many[1] roads" he said "after crossing Avanti and Rikshavat mountain go to Dakshinapatha. Here are great mountain Vindhya, the river Payoshni, running towards the sea, and hermitages of great sages full of roots and fruits. Here, then comes the road going to Vidarbha, while that one leads to Kosala, yonder this towards the south stands the country of Dakshinapatha". The river Payoshni is probably the Tapti of the Vidarbha region. The route crossing Payoshni (Tapti) and going to Vidarbha must have, therefore, passed through this District when Vanaparva of the *Mahabharat* was composed.[2]

The strategic importance of East Nimar as a gateway between the south and the north may be judged by the eagerness of the northern Kings of Generals in the north who aspired to conquer south or *vice versa*. Therefore, they struggled

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१. एते गच्छन्ति बहव: पन्थानो दक्षिणापथम् ।
अवन्तीमृक्षवन्तं च समतिक्रम्य पर्वतम् ।।
एष विन्ध्यो महाशैल: पयोष्णी च समुद्रगा ।
आश्रमाश्च महर्षीणां बहुमूलफलान्विता: ।।
एष पन्था विदर्भाणामसौ गच्छति कोसलान् ।
अत: परं च देशोयं दक्षिणे दक्षिणापथम् ।।
(वनपर्वन् २३१७-१९)

2. However, Cunningham identifies Payoshni with the river Pahuj, a tributory of the Yamuna between the Sindh and Betwa. Some others equate it with the Pain or Vainganga which is a tributory of the Godavari (D. C. Sircar, Studies in the Geography of Ancient and Medieval India, p. 50).

hard to gain command over this region. Satavahan king Satkarni (194-185 B.C.) is said to have expanded his kingdom upto Ujjain and Vidisha and he was in command of all the roads running from south to north[1]. One of such roads passed through Nimar region crossing the Narmada and the Tapti.[2] The Sungas and later the Sakas challenged the sovereignty of the Satavahans and tried to gain possession of the road linking south with north.[3] Later in the 10th and 11th centuries A. D. the present day head-quarters town Khandwa was linked with Dhar, then a centre of learning and seat of royal court and Nemawar, then a holy place situated on the north bank of the Narmada. Alberuni,[4] the Arabian scholar who wrote at the beginning of the 11th Century, mentions these roads. "Marching from Dhar southward you come to *Bhumihara*, 20 *farsakh* from Dhar, Kand 20 *farsakh;* Nemavur on the banks of the Nerbudda 10 *farsakh;* Alispur, 20 *farsakh;* Madangir on the banks of the river Godavari 60 *farsakh*" Elliot and Dowson[5] have mentioned Kand as Kundaki. This distance to Kand or Kundaki corresponds to that of modern Khandwa.[6]

J. B. Tavernier, a renowned foreign traveller of the 17th Century,[7] visited Burhanpur first in 1641 and later in 1665. He travelled to Jahanabad probably *via* Burhanpur.[8] He has mentioned two routes in this connection. The first led from Surat to Agra with stages at Surat, Burhanpur,[9] Gwalior, Dholpur, Agra, Delhi, Lahore and Kabul. The second route went from Bengal to Surat which joined Surat-Agra route at Burhanpur.

Besides Tavernier, these routes have also been mentioned by other travellers like William Finch, Ralph Fitch, Thomas Roe, Peter Mundy, etc. Ralph Fitch followed the Bengal-Surat route passing through Masulipattam, Bellapur, Burumpore, (Burhanpur), Mandla, Ujjain, Gwalior, Agra, Prag (Allahabad), Banaras, Patenau (Patna), Tanda.[10] Sir Thomas Roe's journey from Surat to Ajmer and back to Surat *via* Baroda in September was also *via* Burhanpur. "From Surat to Brampore (Burhanpure) 170 miles[11] (small course) From Brampore to Agra-226 miles (long course)"

The roads which were then used for communication were mostly narrow, unmetalled and also uneven. Tavernier in his narration says that travelling was not less convenient than all that they have been able to invent in order that one

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1. Motichand, *Sarthavahu*, p. 98.
2. Ibid.
3. Ibid.
4. Alberuni's India, Edited by E. C Sachau, Vol. I, p. 203.
5. Elliot and J Dowson, The History of India As Told by Its Own Historians, Vol. I, p 60
6. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p 18.
7. J. B Tavernier, Travels in India Edited by V. Ball, Introduction, p. XIV.
8. Ibid pp. XXVI-XXVII.
9. Ibid, p 47.
10. Purchas Pilgrimes, Hakluyat Society Series, Vol. X, pp. 172 181
11. William Foster, Early Travellers in India, 1583-1619 p. 72.

may be carried in [1]comfort either in France or in Italy. Different from (the custom in) Persia one does not employ in India in caravans or journeys either asses, mules or horses, all being carried there on oxen or by wagon, as the country is sufficiently level it is an astonishing sight to behold caravans numbering 10,000 to 12,000 oxen together for the transport of rice, corn and salt. they use camels also for caravans but rarely and they are specially reserved to carry the luggage of the nobles. When the season passes and they wish to have the goods quickly at Surat in order to ship them, they load them on oxen and not on carts."[1] Caravans of carts ordinarily consisted of between 100 to 200, each cart being drawn by 10 or 12 oxen and usually accompanied by four soldiers.

For passenger transport small and light carriages drawn by a pair of oxen and having the seating capacity for two persons were common. Persons who belonged to richer classes travelled in palanquins which were carried on shoulders by six persons. These were also accompanied by soldier attendants.

There were other ancient modes of conveyance in use An ordinary cart called *Larha* was used for transport. It had a circular top of wicker, often covered by cloth. Other carts used for travelling were called *damni* and *rekhla*. A *damni* carried three or four persons and had wholes of 4 ft. diameter. Its cost was from Rs. 50 to Rs. 60.A *rekhla* was a lighter cart carrying only two persons.[2]

ROAD TRANSPORT

A vivid account of the road system of the District at the time of Forsyth's Settlement (1868-69) is available in the following paragraph.

"The internal communications of the district are as yet very backward, consisting almost entirely of what are properly enough called "fair-weather" roads; that is water-courses during the four rainy months, quagmires for the succeeding two and inferior cart tracks for the remaining six, which latter, however fortunately comprise the season at which the greater portion of the internal traffic would naturally occur " The main exception to this was the old road between Indore and Burhanpur.[3]

The British Government consistently followed the policy of constructing and maintaining roads of military and strategic importance. Equal importance was given to those roads which facilitated cheap transport of cotton of the District to the British market Little efforts were made to provide roads to link the rural area of the district Some impetus was given to the construction and repairs of roads after 1842 when, in place of Syer dues and transit duties, British Government levied toll tax at various *ghats* and ferries.[4] Also one per cent of the revenue was realised as road fund The proceeds from these funds were utilised for con-

1. T. B. Tavernier, op. cit., p. 39-40
2. Nimar District Gazetteer, p 143
3. Nimar Settement Report, 1868-69, p 239
4. Selection from the Records of Government of North-West Province, part XVIII, p. 190.

struction and repair of roads. But the greater part of the proceeds from the above were devoted to repairs of the old highway which connected Malwa with Vidarbha and Khandesh. When the railways were introduced the afore-mentioned funds were diverted to roads feeding the railways and even the trunk roads running parallel to railways were neglected. The result was that, probably, to avoid rail-road competition, emphasis was laid on feeder lines to feed the rail-borne traffic. Because of this policy, there was no progress in the construction of roads. As stated above, extension of railways established wider and cheaper means of transport and resulted in deliberate neglect of main roads. The result of this policy was that neither of the out lying tahsils was linked up by a first class road with the district head-quarters, as railways already linked these. There were only two major roads, i.e., old Bombay-Jabalpur road and the Burhanpur-Indore road. They ran parallel to the railways and so their utility was limited. Comparatively, Khandwa Tahsil was better in respect of roads, Burhanpur Tahsil ranking the next. The communications of the latter tahsil were improved since the last Settlement of 1895-99 by construction of the Burhanpur-Dhertalai road, which assumed some significance, being further connected with Amrawati in Maharashtra State. Harsud the third tahsil had no roads worth the mention. However, nature tried to make good to some extent the apathy of the rulers as regards provision of easy means of communications. The rocky nature of the terrain permitted the maintenance of a network of passage tracks in the open season

An idea of the road system existing at the beginning of the present Century can be obtained through the old Nimar District Gazetteer. Mention has already been made of the old trunk road from Indore to Burhanpur and the old Jabalpur-Bombay road. There was a link road of nine miles connecting Khandwa with Chhegaon which was fully metalled. "The only other metalled roads in the District are the short links or feeders from Mortakka to Mandhata, Khandwa to Mohghat reservoir and Burhanpur to Lalbag station. Burhanpur is connected with Shahpur 5 miles distant by a gravelled road. a ferry being maintained over the Tapti in the rains. Other gravelled roads lead from Chandni to Asirgarh and from Harsud through Seraipani to Asapur. The District Council maintains short feeders from Bir to Mundi, Dongargaon to Borgaon and Khandwa to Pandhana, and a road leading from Burhanpur to Loni and on to Khandesh. Pandhana has a considerable trade in cotton. Among the more important surface roads are those from Khandwa to Bhamgarh, from Khandwa to Jaswari and Piplod, and from Mundi to Chandgarh All of these carry a good deal of traffic."[1] The total length of roads maintained by Public Works Department then was 194 miles (67 miles metalled and 127 miles unmetalled) and by District Council 26 miles of gravelled roads.

The following Table shows the total length of metalled and unmetalled roads as in 1913-14 and in a few subsequent selected years upto 1964. By the year 1952-53 considerable increase in the length of metalled roads was noticeable in

1. Nimar District Gazetteer, pp. 142-143.

the District. The increase of over 100 per cent in the length of the metalled roads was achieved since 1913-14, the year of last Revenue Settlement in the District.[1]

Year	Total length of Metalled Roads Miles Kms	Total length of Unmetalled Roads Miles Kms.	Total Miles Kms.
1913-14	123 (197 95)	— —	123 (197.95)
1952-53	247 (397.51)	14 (22.53)	261 (420.04)
1959-60	349 (561.66)	15 (24.14)	364 (585 80)
1964	439 (706.50)	15 (24.14)	454 (730.64)

Out of the total length of metalled roads in 1964 about 221.50 miles (356.47 kms.) were bituminous and about 217 50 miles (350.03 kms.) water-bound-macadam.

Construction of a number of village roads was undertaken under the new Rs. one lakh per district per annum Village Road Scheme. So also during the year 1952-53 construction of a number of useful link and feeder village roads was undertaken, as scarcity relief measure. The work was suitably supplemented by shramdan or voluntary free labour offered by people. The total length of such roads on which work was started amounted to nearly 120 miles in the District.

Road Schemes in Plan Periods

There has been a considerable activity in building new roads during the two Plan periods. In later years of the First Five Year Plan and during the period of Second Five Year Plan the road building activity gathered momentum in the District especially in the various Community Development and National Extension Service Blocks. It is worth mentioning that the people residing within these Blocks have shown great enthusiasm in sharing about 50 per cent of the total cost of building these roads.

Road Schemes in the First Plan

The construction of following roads, commenced as scarcity works during the First Five Year Plan, continued during the Second Plan period and was completed by Public Works Department.—

S. No.	Name of Road	Length Miles	Length Kms.
1.	Saktapur-Baldi-Badkeshwar Road	5.00	8.05
2.	Asapur-Khalwa Road	8.37	13.47
3.	Khandwa-Jawar Road	9.25	14.89
4.	Mundi Punasa Road	14.25	22.93
5.	Piplod-Dhertalai Road	10 00	16.09
6.	Sulgaon-Punasa Road	18 50	29.77
7.	Kalmukhi-Chichgaon Road	8.50	13.68

1. Forecast Report on the Resettlement of the Nimar District, 1953, pp. 3-4.

8.	Pandhana-Arud Road	5.75	9.25
9.	Bahadurpur-Biroda Road	2.75	4.43
10.	Loni-Khandesh (Border) Road	1.75	2.82
11.	Daryapur-Jalgaon Road	9 50	15.29
12	Nepa-Siwal Road	4 06	6.53
13.	Chapora-Dhamangaon Road	2.75	4.43
14.	Shahpur-Phopnar Road	6 25	10.06
15.	Asir-Dhulkot Road	8 50	13.68
16.	Shahpur-Bhambara Road	6.62	10.65
17.	Rusia-Chichgaon Road	2.50	4.02
18.	Lalbag-Patonda Roda	1.50	2 42
19.	Singot-Khalwa Road	16.75	26.96

In addition to these roads, the following four roads were also constructed during the same period through public participation.—

S. No.	Road	Length	
		Miles	Kms.
1.	Lalbag-Shahdra Road	1.50	2.42
2.	Sulgaon-Nimarkhedi Road	2.50	4.02
3	Nepa-Chandni Road (Improvement)	3 40	5.47
4.	Doiphoria-Nandora Road	2.50	4 02

Road Schemes in the Second Plan

Various Community Development Blocks and Janapada Sabhas in the District actively participated in the construction of the following 14 roads during this period.--

S. No.	Name of Road	Length	
		Miles	Kms.
1.	Phopnar-Turak-Gurara Road	1 50	2 42
2	Basad Road	3.00	4.83
3.	Phopnar Village Road	1.00	1.61
4.	Asapur-Khalwa-Malhargarh Road	0,56	0 90
5.	Baldi Approach Road	2.50	4.02
6	Link Road from Batadhi Village to Khandwa Harsud Road	2.00	3.22
7.	Harsud-Mahalpur-Mogal Road	0 50	0.80
8.	Road to link Khandwa Harsud Road with Saktapur Road	0.62	1 00
9.	Road to link Khandwa-Harsud Road with Bori-Bandorai Road	2.50	4.02
10.	Road to link Mahalpur with Harsud Harda Road	2 00	3.22
11.	Daudpura Approach Road	0 50	0.80
12.	Mathela Approach Road	0,75	1.21
13.	Punasa-Dhanari Road	1.50	2.42
14.	Jawar-Rusia Road	3,25	5 23

Road Schemes in the Third Plan

During the Third Five Year Plan, the schemes belonging to following categories were undertaken· (1) construction of new roads, (2) improvement in surface and width, and (3) construction of major and minor bridges.—

Construction of New Roads

The Table below shows the details of roads selected for construction during the Plan period.—

S. No.	Name of Road	Length	
		Miles	Kms.
1.	Piplod-Dhertalai Road (beyond 10 miles)	8 00	12.88
2.	Daryapur-Jalgaon Road (beyond 9 miles)	9.75	15,69
3.	Jawar-Singaji Sahejla Road	15.00	24.14
4.	Daryapur-Titgaon-Sarola Ambada Road	10 00	16.09
5.	Pandhana-Diwal Road	8 00	12.87
6.	Pandhana-Ghatkhedi Road	8.00	12.87
7.	Jawar-Sahejla Road	3 00	4.83

Widening and Black-Topping

Under this scheme portion of two roads were to be taken up for widening and black-topping, namely, Khandwa-Hoshangabad Road and Khandwa-Indore Road.

Five road works, i.e. (1) Asir-Dhulket road, (2) Doifora-Nandora road, (3) Shekhpur-Mahangarh road, (4) Sitapur-Chakelara road and (5) Khaknar-Nimendad road have been completed. Construction of H. L. bridges in mile 3.37 and mile 4.12 on Khandwa-Indore road and bridges in mile 1.87 and mile 2.50 on Khandwa-Burhanpur road was also brought to completion Some road works remained in progress, viz., Jawar-Mundi Road (12 50 miles) Ahmadpur-Khaigaon Road, Shahpur-Khamani Road. Sulgaon-Sanawar Road (5 miles), five approaches to railway stations on Khandwa-Hingoli railway line, and Singot-Khalwa Road 16.75 miles The last road when completed will connect Betul district with East Nimar District and curtail the distance between Khandwa and Betul. It will stimulate commerce in agricultural and forest produce of the region The existing cart track becomes impassable during rainy season

The works under item (iii) are described ahead

Road Classification

According to the Nagpur Session of Indian Roads Congress (1943) the roads are classified into four major categories, *viz.*, (i) National Highways, (ii) State Highways, (iii) Major District Roads, and (iv) Minor District Roads. There are no National Highways and State Highways in the District. The length

of the other categories in the District on 31st March, 1962 was as follows.—

Serial No.	Road Category	Length	
		Miles	Kms.
1.	Major District Road	173.87	279.81
2.	Minor District Roads	254 62	409.77
3.	Roads belonging to local Bodies*	71.56	115.07
4.	Forest Roads	463.00	745.12
5.	Village Roads	196.37	316.03
Total		1159 36	1865.80

*Includes roads maintained by Municipal Board, Khandwa and Burhanpur and Janapada Sabha Burhanpur only.

Major District Roads

The total length of these roads in the District in 1962 was 173.79 miles. These roads are maintained by the State Public Works Department. The important roads under this category were the following.

S. No.	Name of Road	Length	
		Miles	Kms.
1.	Indore-Mortakka-Khandwa	88.00	45.06
2.	Khandwa-Burhanpur	42.37	68.35
3.	Burhanpur-Bombay	11.70	18.83
4.	Burhanpur-Amravati	44 37	71.41
5.	Khandwa-Harsud	38 37	61 75
6	Others	8 98	14.45

Khandwa-Mortakka Road

The road is motorable in open season and generally during the rains when the Bhutia nullah in mile 29.75 is not in floods. It connects Khandwa with the important cotton centre at Sanawad and also with the sacred place of the Hindus at Mandhata, via Mortakka. It carries heavy Traffic in cotton. It affords easier and quicker access to the important towns of Mhow and Indore than the metre gauge line from Khandwa. It was an important trade route and had military importance before the opening of the railway. Since 1846 the work of developing this road has continued due to its all round importance. The length of the road is 40 62 miles out of which only 28 miles pass through the territory of the District. It is a Class I road. The road starts from the west gate, Khandwa near the railway booking office. In mile 2 it emerges in open level country and upto 13th mile passes through cotton and jowar fields.

In mile 3, the Abna river is crossed through a flush causeway which becomes impassable during rains. At the end of the 6th mile there is a steep ascent to village Chhegaon Dabi. Old Bombay road known as the Great Deccan road from

Chhegaon to Ichhapur branches off from furlong 8 of mile 9. Chhegaon-Makhan village is met with in mile 10.25. In mile 14 there is a ghat with steep and tortous descent and requires cautious driving. From Daisgaon village in mile 15.75 a road branches off to Bhikangaon in West Nimar District. The road passes through scrub jungle in miles 16.22. In miles 23.26, the road lies in West Nimar District. Bhutia nullah in mile 29.75 is a big obstacle is the free flow of traffic as it is unbridged. It is difficult to cros at any time and it becomes impassable. after heavy rains. In mile 33 the road re-enters West Nimar District only to return to the District of origin, i.e., East Nimar in mile 38. Cotton and jowar fields reappear to greet the passer-by. A road takes off to Mandhata in mile 40.87 Mandhata is a centre of pilgrimage. A furlong beyond comes Mortakka village to the right and Mortakka railway station (Now Omkareshwar Road railway station) to the left. In mile 41.25, comes Kherighat village on the banks of the river Narmada.

Previously, upto the year 1932, the road ended near the combined road and railway bridge over the Narmada. The road bridge was passable for motors. Beyond the bridge the road entered into Central India. In the year 1958 a high level bridge was constructed at the cost of Rs. 36 lakhs Prior to this traffic used to be suspended in rains and the river was ferried. After completion of this bridge and merger of Madhya Bharat and Mahakoshal the traffic on this road has increased considerably. There are a number of curves on Khandwa-Mortakka section which require to be eliminated. The entire road is in need of widening and tarring to withstand the impact of increasing traffic, bridging of the Abna river near Khandwa is also a pressing necessity to ensure uninterupted traffic Out of this total length 16.50 miles of the road is black-topped After crossing the bridge the road leads to Mhow and Indore.

Khandwa-Burhanpur Road

Till the construction of the Khandwa-Pandhana road by about the second decade of the present Century, there was no direct road from Khandwa to Burhanpur. The traffic from Khandwa for Indore or Burhanpur and onwards was carried by Khandwa-Chhegaon feeder road which joined the old Bombay road. This road 42.4? miles in length is black-topped throughout. It branches off to the left from the Khandwa-Mortakka road near the town hall Khandwa, and runs south-east. It crosses the Central Railway (broad gauge) in mile 0 50. In mile 2.50 a raised causeway over the Abna river allows all traffic in all seasons accept in heavy rains. At the end of the 8th mile there is a nullah with a rocky bed which becomes impassable for a few hours in the rains. The road in 10th mile reaches Dulhar, and 0.50 mile further the old Bombay road Chhegaon to Ichhapur. The old Bombay road from this junction to Burhanpur has been raised to Class I (This road further proceeds as a branch road upto mile 12, and terminates at Pandhana village, an important cotton centre).

This section of the road is motorable in open season and in rains when nullahs and rivers are not in floods. It lies in open country with cotton and jowar cultivation and carries heavy traffic in cotton.

The road then passing through the villages of Piplod, Rustumpur, Sultanpur and Kumtha, crosses the river Sukta over a high level village in mile 17.87. After a little over one mile the road goes through the village Borgaon. The village is linked by a feeder road of three miles length with the Dongargaon railway station of the Central Railway (broad guage). Past Borgaon the road runs through hilly and Government forest area for eight miles. In mile 30.50 a branch road leads to Asirgarh fort. Then again the road traverses hilly and forest land between miles 30.62 and 35.62. Asir village is met within mile 30.6. From Asir a feeder road of eight miles goes to Chandni and three miles further to Nepanagar. In miles 34.37 and 35.62 two nullahs are crossed. Then the road speeds up through open country growing cotton and jowar for five miles between miles 36.62 to 41.62. In mile 38.37 Nimbla village is reached which is connected with Chulkhan railway station by a 0.25 mile track. Utaoli river is crossed by a 300' long raised causeway in mile 41.12 A mile beyond the road runs outside the fortification wall of the Burhanpur city Soon the road crosses the Burhanpur railway feeder road just outside Sanawara gate.

Burhanpur-Bombay Road

The length of the road within the District is 11.70 miles out of which the road is black-topped in a stretch of 9.18 miles. It is a part of old Bombay road and in fact projection of Khandwa-Burhanpur road described above

Starting from Sanwara gate, the traveller soon finds himself driving through rich agricultural land well-known for its crops of cotton and jowar, till he leaves the District. After driving for about 4.50 miles, the Tapti river is crossed which is provided with a flush causeway In mile eight it enters Jalgaon District of Maharashtra State and after traversing this State for miles it re-enters East Nimar. It leaves at Ichhapur to finally wind its way through Maharashtra. Bombay is at a distance of 316 miles from the border of the District.

All the three major roads of the District in fact form one road. The Central Government has been moved to declare this road as a National Highway.

Burhanpur-Dhertalai Road

It is locally known as Amravati-Burhanpur Road. It is a very important road both from administrative and economic points of view. The opening of this road was proposed as early as 1868 It was treated as a great highway of commerce in 1914. The length of the road is 44 37 miles out of which 28 miles are black-topped and the rest is water-bound macadum.

Starting from Burhanpur railway station and running past Lalbag, it enters the city of Burhanpur. In mile four, the Tapti river is crossed by a raised cause-

way. There are steep approaches with sharp curves which demand cautious driving. A good view of the Burhanpur town is obtained from a ridge on the road in mile seven. In between miles 11-19, villages of Daryapur, Sinkhera, Sirpur, Shikarpur and Doipheria are reached. From mile 13 to 42 the road passes through rich cotton growing area known as Manjrod tract. In miles 24, 27, 30, 33, 37 and 40, villages named Dhaba, Khaknar, Tambi, Manjrod, Raitalai and Dhanti, respectively, are met with. In mile 34, the Khokri nullah, and in mile 39 the Dewal river with awkward and steep approaches are crossed Dhertalai village in mile 44 is the last village of this District on the road. Thereafter, the road enters Amravati district of Maharashtra State.

Khandwa-Harsud-Hoshangabad Road

The road is locally known as the old Bombay road. After the construction of the railway line which follows more or less the same alignment, the road lost much of its former importance It was reconstructed in 1931. Khandwa-Harsud section is 38.37 miles in length out of which 25.87 miles are black-topped and the rest water bound macadum. There is very heavy traffic in grain, cotton, timber, etc.

The road starts from Railway station Khandwa and turns to the left crossing the railway overbridge having steep approaches. A road loading to Jaswari branches in mile 0.50. After passing through a small stretch of undulating country, the road in mile four, enters open flat country with lush cotton and jowar fields. These fields greet the visitor right upto 24th mile. A link-road to Bhamgarh branched off in mile 12. The Tawa is also crossed here. The main road now turns to the left for Asapur which is situated in mile 25.25. From mile 28 to 39, the road passes through open cultivated tract, but landscape changes as besides the cotton and jowar, wheat and sesamum are also seen growing. In mile 31, the road crosses the Ghorapachhar river over a high-level bridge. It then passes village Boroor in mile 33 and crosses the Ruprai river in the nent mile. In 39th mile, it leaves the visitor in Harsud town. The main road goes on to the Hoshangabad District border which is reached in the next 7th mile The entire journey is through open level country growing cotton and jowar. In the third mile the Malimachak river is crossed while in the fifth mile, half a mile long road to the right links Piplani railway station.

Minor District Roads

These comprise a number of minor roads and branch-roads of a total length of 254.75 miles which traverse the District and connect rural and urban areas and trade centres. Out of the length, 29.75 miles are bituminous and 225.7 miles are water-bound macadum. Of these, important roads are shown below.—

S. No	Name of Road	Length	
		Miles	Kms.
1	Asapur-Khalwa	8 37	13.47
2.	Khandwa-Jawar	9 25	14.89
3.	Bahadurpur-Loni	5 00	8.05

4.	Shahpur-Bhambada	6.69	10.65
5.	Shahpur-Phopnar	8.75	14.08
6.	Asir-Dhulket	8.50	13 68
7.	Daryapur-Jalgaon	8 75	15.69
8.	Kalmukhi-Chinchgaon	8.50	13.68
9.	Asir Chandni	5.25	8.45
10.	Nepanagar-Siwal	4.06	6.53

These roads are maintained by the State Public Works Department.

Roads of Local Bodies

Roads of about 71.50 miles length are under the management of Local Bodies of the District. The Burhanpur Janapada Sabha maintains some feeder roads of about 8.75 miles in rural areas. The Municipal Committee, Burhanpur, maintains 21 75 miles of black topped and metalled roads in the town. The Khandwa Municipal Committee maintains about 41 miles of roads, 28 miles being metalled, the rest unmetalled. The length increased to 46.40 miles in the year 1963-64.

Forest Roads

The total length of these roads in the District on 31st March 1962 was 463.0 miles out of which 58 miles are cart tracks With a view to fully utilising the available forest resources of the District the Government have constructed roads in the various forest ranges. The work of construction and management of these forest roads has been entrusted to the East Nimar Forest Division. In fair weather these cart tracks are motorable too. Roads having a total length of 405 miles have been constructed by using artificially admixed granular material, gravel, murum etc, on natural soil These latter types of roads are motorable throughout the year excepting during periods of very heavy rains.

Village Roads

The total length of these roads is 196 37 miles in the District. These are mostly gravelled roads used for inter-village communication Roads constructed during scarcity (1953), and village roads constructed under public participation and Collectors' Rs One Lakh Scheme are unbridged and remain practically blocked for days together during rainy season due to flooding of the nullahs and rivers coming in the way.

VEHICLES AND CONVEYANCES

Bullocks horses, carts, camels, asses and mules, were the time-honoured modes of traffic in the District. This is disclosed by the statistical return of traffic on the Burhanpur-Indore road, taken out on the trestle bridge over the Narmada at Kheri-Ghat during the year 1853-54.[1] With the development in roads of the District, means of transport too have undergone a radical change during the period

1. Report on the Revenue Administration of Nimar, 1853-54, p 392.

of a Century. Although since 1846 onwards number of carts on hire began to increase yet the increased number was found quite below the demand even in 1868-69.[1] Before the advent of railways in the District in 1865, the above mentioned means of transport were abundantly used for interior traffic. The spread of railway-line brought about a change in their frequency. By 1895, road traffic was marred by the rail traffic.[2] But in rural areas their importance remained unchallenged for a considerably long period. In the year 1914, carts were plentiful[3] in the District, especially to carry traffic from the interior to the nearest railway station or whole-sale markets. Motor vehicles were introduced in the District towards the end of second decade of this Century Introduction and progress of motor transport system has revolutionised the system of conveyance and road traffic in the District, especially in urban and road-side rural areas.

At present in rural areas bullock carts, light carts called *chhakadas* or *damnis*, horses and bicycles are mainly used as conveyance. Carts are used for short distances and places unconnected by bus services. Donkeys are also used for carrying goods in villages. The normal rate of bullock cart on hire is Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 per day. In recent years traffic by public-carriers and rail has increased. Passenger-buses and six-seater cars too visit many of the villages. Some well-to-do persons of villages too now own private carriers, car or jeeps. But bullock-carts still retain their original popular position.

In urban areas of the District public-carriers, constitute the principal means of conveyance. Passenger traffic in towns is carried by tongas and a few privately owned taxis. Cycles, motor-cycles and private motor cars are also used in the town. Goods are generally transported by trucks over long distances. Heavy diesal trucks have become quite common and have captured most of the goods transport business.

The number of bullock carts, tongas and bicycles within Khandwa Municipality in 1953-54 was 232, 44 and 897 respectively while the relevant figures for the years 1964-65 were 275, 99 and 2,517 respectively.

In Burhanpur town area the same facilities are available for goods and passenger traffic. Registered number of vehicles in Burhanpur Municipal area during 1954-55 was 691 bullock-carts, 51 tongas and 1,887 cycles, respectively. The relevant figures for the year 1964-65 stood at 177 tongas and 2,381 cycles, respectively. Tongas also ply between Burhanpur and Shahpur, a distance of about five miles.

Automobiles

The number of cars and motor-cycles in the District was 128 and 72, respectively, in 1957, while their corresponding number in 1958 was 134 and 79. In

1. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p. 238,
2. Ibid, 1895-99. p. 5
3. Ibid, 1911-14, p. 12,

1931 number of private motor cars in the District was only 53[1]. The increase of cars during the past three decades has been considerable due to various reasons, such as improvement and development in roads, increasing trade and traffic, etc. The Table below shows the number of vehicles in the District during 1960 and 1961.—

Year	Cars	Buses	Lorries	Motor-Cycles	Taxies	Others	Total
1960	163	77	179	46	--	12	477
1961	165	77	212	53	3	12	522

Public Transport

Motor Transport (Buses)

In the year 1931 number of taxi-cabs and lorries in the District was only 94,[2] as the roads were not fully bridged or metalled. With the improvement in roads in the District motor transport showed an increasing trend. Thus in the years 1957 and 1958 number of buses (excluding taxi-cabs) was 52 and 65, respectively. Prior to Reorganization of States, Regional Transport Authority, Amravati, was the licencing, registering and taxation authority in respect of motor vehicles of this District. Now they are under the Jurisdiction of Regional Transport Authority, Indore. At present, Madhya Pradesh State Road Transport Corporation runs its buses on Khandwa-Indore and Khandwa-Hoshangabad roads. Along with buses of other private companies, they carry passenger and limited goods traffic on above roads In addition, there are about 18 private companies which possess about 95 buses. Majority of the offices of transport companies are located at Khandwa and Burhanpur.

All these buses run on about 35 long and short routes of the District. The bus-service remains closed during rains on *cutcha* roads. All the important places in the District are now linked with one another by motor transport. The following are the important routes covered.—

1. Burhanpur-Khandwa
2. Burhanpur-Ichhapur
3. Burhanpur-Nepanagar
4. Burhanpur-Dobtalai
5. Khandwa-Harsud
6. Khandwa-Mortakka-Mandhata
7. Khandwa-Jawar
8. Khandwa-Kalmukhi
9. Khandwa-Arud
10. Khandwa-Gudi
11. Khandwa-Bir
12. Burhanpur-Khandwa-Indore
13. Burhanpur-Malkapur (Maharashtra)

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1. Census of India, 1931, C. P. and Berar, Pt., I, p. 79.
2 Ibid.

14. Burhanpur-Hoshangabad
15. Khandwa-Amravati
16. Khandwa-Barwani
17. Khandwa-Khargone
18. Khandwa-Harda-Hoshangabad
19. Khandwa-Hoshangabad-Bhopal
20. Mandhata-Ujjain
21. Mandhata-Khargone

Rail-Road Competition

Rail-road competition in the East Nimar District is very keen on certain sections as far as passenger traffic is concerned. There are many routes on which passenger buses and trucks ply in large numbers and carry heavy passenger and goods traffic. The following are the important routes on which there is a heavy passenger traffic carried by buses on a competitive basis with railways.—

1. Khandwa-Burhanpur
2. Burhanpur-Nepanagar
3. Khandwa-Harsud
4. Khandwa-Piplod (Takal)
5. Khandwa-Omkareshwar Road

The goods to and from places like Bombay, Akola, Amravati, Jalgaon, Indore, Ujjain, Sironj, Hoshangabad, Harda, Jabalpur, Bhopal, Khargone, etc. are transported by trucks. The goods are delivered by trucks earlier than the railways. All this goods transport business on roads has been carried by the private sector. Several trucks from other districts too carry goods traffic to and from this District. Buses originating from other districts ply on the following routes.—

1. Khandwa-Amravati
2. Khandwa-Hoshangabad
3. Khandwa-Indore
4. Khandwa-Edlabad
5. Burhanpur-Malkapur

RAILWAYS

East Nimar District is well served by the railways for the carriage of passenger and goods traffic from one place to another within and outside the District. Khandwa, the district head-quarters, is the junction of (1) the Central Railway (broad and metre gauge), and (2) the Western Railway (metre gauge), Railway lines radiate from Khandwa towards Allahabad, Bombay, Hingoli and Ajmer *via.*, Indore.

The total railway mileage in the District is 161 miles (259.10 kms.) divided into two Railway zones, i.e., (i) the Central Railway, and (ii) the Western Railway, and comprise the following —

(I) Central Railway (Broad gauge).

(i) Khandwa-Itarsi section 39 miles (62 76 kms.)

(ii) Khandwa-Bhusawal section 50 miles (80.47 kms.)

(II) Central Railway (Metre gauge):

(i) Khandwa-Hingoli line 43 miles (69.20 kms.)

(III) Western Railways (Metre gauge):

(i) Khandwa-Indore-Ajmer line 29 miles (46 67 kms.)

Bombay-Khandwa-Allahabad Section

The British commercial interests had urged the necessity of this line, which was meant to open the hinterland of India. The District has been producing enormous quantities of cotton which began to attract attention of cloth manufacturers of England At that time the founders of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway Company advocated[1] rapid extension of railways in this region, especially in cotton zones to carry cotton on a large scale to the ports, for being transported to England. Therefore, as early as 1847, the Resident of Indore, communicated his views to the Secretary to the Government, North Western Provinces, Revenue Department, in the following words. "I can only repeat an often recorded opinion that the introduction of this rapid means of inter-communication is daily becoming more, politically and commercially, imperative and must sooner or later be carried into effect. Every month's delay, I look upon as a vast sacrifice of capital, and a hindrance to the prosperity and the development of this country."[2] In 1854, the Agent again emphasized the necessity of "facility of and cheap transport to a port"[3] for carrying cotton of this area to the English market. As stated earlier the total length of this section in the District is 89 miles. This was the first railway line in the District constructed by the former Great Indian Peninsula Railway Company and reached upto Burhanpur on the 20th November, 1865 The following statement shows the progress of construction of this railway line in this District --

Section of Railway	Date of opening	Miles
Bhusawal to Burhanpur	20.11.1865	33 73
Burhanpur to Khandwa	3.9 1866	42.78
Khandwa to Bir	17.2.1868	21.15
Bir to Itarsi	1.1 1870	89.87

Thus railway communication of the District had been completed with Bombay during the years 1865 to 1870 In the latter year the line was linked with the East Indian Railway at Jabalpur The railway line enters the District boundary immediately after passing Waghoda station (in Maharashtra State) a little distance to the west of Burhanpur and traverses the centre of it running north and northeast. It crosses an opening in Satpura hills near Asirgarh. The line is double throughout, the interlocking of points and signals was completed in two stages,

1. D. R. Gadgil, Industrial Evolution in India, p. 14
2. Report on the Revenue Administration of Nimar, 1846-47, p. 219.
3. Ibid, 1853-54, p. 380.

i.e. from Bhusawal to Khandwa on 11th January, 1889 and from Khandwa to Itarsi on 16th October, 1905. The line passes through Burhanpur, Asirgarh, Chandni, Nepanagar, Mandwa, Sagphali, Dongargaon, Kondagaon, Bagmar and Khandwa. Beyond Khandwa stations are Mathela, Talwadiya, Khaigaon, Bir, Singaji, Harsud and Piplani. The railway leaves the District boundary a little distance after this station and enters Hoshangabad District.

Khandwa-Hingoli Line (Metre gauge)

The total length of the line in the District is 43 miles. To connect the existing northern and southern metre gauge railway system the mileage of which were 10,113 and 4,933, respectively, a project known as "Khandwa-Hingoli Meter Gauge Railway link" with a total length of 187.23 miles was sanctioned by the Railway Board of the Government of India on the 1st March 1954, though the construction of this railway line had been considered on several occasions from as far back as 1882. The work of construction of this vital rail link was inaugurated at Khandwa on the 17th March 1954. Prior to this, Khandwa and Hingoli both were in a sense terminus stations of respective northern and southern metre gauge rail lines. The link line constitutes one of the biggest and the most important post-Independence construction projects on the Indian Railways.

The new line branches off at Khandwa and runs towards south east of the District, the corner which alone till now remained remote from the railway. This line passes through the most fertile area of the District for the first 21 miles. Further, it ascends the Satpura ranges rising from 1,007 ft. above mean sea level at Khandwa to 1,2501 at mile 27. There are deep cuttings and high embankments in this region and construction of line here called for a high degree of engineering. skill. At mile 36 the line crosses the river Tapti over a seven-span bridge, 980 ft. in length. Tukaithad, at mile 38.5, is last railway station of this District on this line. At mile 43 the line leaves the boundary of the District and enters the Vidarbha region of the Maharashtra State. This new rail line has brought this District in closer rail contact with Vidarbha and Marathwada. It is hoped that soon the line will directly help in opening up of the under developed part of the District which was hitherto inaccessible by rail. This would also prove a boon to cotton producers of the District as this new link would enable quick transport of their produce to the important markets and textile centres within or outside in the District. The integration of northern and southern metre gauge system brought about by this link line has now enabled the uninterrupted movement of passengers and goods traffic from Bhatinda in the north to Trivandrum and Tuticorin in the south.

On the 2nd June, 1957, the line was opened for all descriptions of passenger, luggage, parcel and goods traffic upto a distance of 19 miles from Khandwa to Takal (Piplod). This was further extended by 14 miles upto Amulla in the District from 15th April, 1958 Thereafter, the line was further extended. This marked the end of seven years of hard work on the line in the District. Now the line has five stations within the District besides Khandwa, Mordar (16 kms. from

Khandwa), Takal (30 kms.), Gurhi (35 kms.), Amlakhurd (53 kms.), and Tukaikhad (64 kms.).

Khandwa-Indore-Ajmer line (Metre gauge)

The total length of this line in the District till its exit into West Nimar district is 29 miles and railway stations passed from Khandwa are Ajanti (13 kms.), Sirran (22 kms.), Attar (30 kms.), Nimarkhedi (43 kms.), and Omkareshwar Road (60 kms.). The line after Nimarkhedi enters the West Nimar District for some miles and then again passes through East Nimar District. It leaves the District at Omkareshwar Road where the line also crosses the Narmada.

It was on the 28th April, 1870, that an agreement was reached between His Highness Maharaja Tukojirao Holkar and the Government of India for the construction of a railway line linking Khandwa with Indore. The Maharaja advanced a loan of Rs. one crore (since reduced to Rs 70 lakhs). One of the conditions attached with the loan was that railway line should be called Holkar State Railway.

With the merger of Indore State in Madhya Bharat, payment of interest on loan for the year 1949-50 was made to the Government of Madhya Bharat. With effect from 1st April 1950, the loan has been treated extinguished as a result of the Federal Financial Intergration and the amount is treated as share capital of the railway undertaking.[1] This railway line was constructed and worked by the erstwhile Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway Company. Khandwa-Sanawad section over a length of 34.15 miles was opened on 1st February, 1874. The line upto Omkareshwar, a further distance of 3.36 miles, was opened Exactly two months later. In subsequent years, i.e., upto the year 1880 the line was completed upto Ajmer. The line traversing the western part of Madhya Pradesh through Indore, Ratlam, Jaora, Mandsaur and Neemuch terminates at Ajmer.

Rail-Borne Traffic

In a short period of a quarter of a Century, the rail-borne trade of the District became well-established. The leading feature of the trade of the District then was a considerable export of jowar to Berar and Rajasthan, and cotton to Bombay and other parts of the Country, like Central India and Punjab. The extension of railway indirectly brought about a rapid decline of handloom industry of the District Machine-made cloth began to be imported in larger quantities. The establishment of new industry of weaving and pressing of cotton by machinery was facilitated, and expanded during this period. The agricultural produce of the District, then came within easy reach of the railway and so the agriculturists began to pay more attention to their land and to the cultivation of commercial crops

WATERWAYS, FERRIES AND BRIDGES

Of the two main rivers of the District, the Tapti is generally not navigable for craft of any size, because its bed is very rocky, and the water of the river dries

1. History of Indian Railways 1958, p. 226.

off soon after rains reducing it into a mere nullah. However, the river is being used for transportation of bamboos and logs required by the National Newsprint and Paper Mills, Nepanagar.

The river Narmada is navigable in some of its course in the District (with a portage at Dhaire or Punasa falls) for boats of about five tons for about 10 months in a year.[1]

Ferries

As regards ferries there was none in 1854. During rains the people used to pass on crafts or inflated skins[2] while crossing the Tapti. In the same year a ferry boat was constructed at Sindwal for carrying traffic across the river. A ferry is now maintained at Rajghat on the Burhanpur-Shahpur Road on the Tapti river, two miles off Burhanpur. But since 1932, when the road bridge on the river was constructed, the use of ferry has been restricted only to public in rains, as this measure reduces the distance from a number of villages, on other side of the river, to Burhanpur by about four miles. Ferries were arranged at village Mortakka on Indore-Khandwa road for carrying traffic across the Narmada in rains during the middle of the past century.[3] The practice continued for a pretty long time. Since 1939, when the road bridge beneath the railway line was removed, the river was ferried for transportation of traffic from one side to the other. It was open in fair weather. Since 1958, due to the construction of road bridge, the ferry system has been suspended. Between village Mandhata and the island of Mandhata, ferries carry the traffic across the Narmada. From Mandhata, ferries also carry traffic when required by people to Siddhawarkut hills, a centre of Jain pilgrimage located north on bifurcated upstream. A bridge is under construction across the Narmada at Mandhata. Some of the ferries at Mandhata are privately owned.

Only country boats are ferried in the Narmada and the Tapti rivers during August to February. They are also used for the transport of bamboos and timber.

Bridges

In 1931, rivers and nullahs in most cases were either unbridged or unrepaired. Conditions have considerably improved now and a number of bridges have been constructed or are under various stages of construction.

The Third Plan scheme envisaged the construction of major and minor bridges on different roads of the District. Major bridges, six in number, were to be constructed out of which three were on Daryapur-Jawar Road in the 9th mile. For the construction of 290 minor bridges, 20 roads were selected in the District.

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1. The Gazetteer of the Central Provinces, 1868, p. 328.
2. Report on the Revenue Administration of Nimar, 1853-54, p. 384.
3. Selections from the Records of the Government of N. W. P., 1856, p. 390.

Air Transport

An emergency landing ground at Khandwa on during the period of the second World War. There has been no regular air service in the District. The landing ground is maintained by the Central Public Works Department.

TRAVEL AND TOURIST FACILITIES

As described in the beginning of this Chapter, East Nimar District has, from historic times, occupied a central position as it provided a link between the north and the south. From military and strategic points of view too, the region in the past, had been considered important by the emperors, princes, governors and army-generals, who used to pass through the region whenever occasion arose. "The road stages", observed Sir R.Temple, of officiating Chief Commissioner of the Central Province "were througed with travellers to and from between the great capitals of Malwa to the North and the Deccan to the South."[1] As regards public buildings and works, beneficial to travellers, traders and troops alike be remarked "the face of the country was sprinkled over with public buildings or works of improvement, with caravan serais, with rest-houses and wells......"[2]

People of the District had still maintained their high traditions in building *serais*, *dharmashalas* and wells on high roads and in villages on the main routes. Tributes were paid to the people in contemporary Government reports, for subscribing freely according to their means for construction of numerous charitable works beneficial to all travellers, traders and officials. Besides these *serais* and *dharmashalas* staging-bungalows and rest-houses at intervals were provided for travellers on the main road running from Indore to Burhanpur.

During 1845-52 there were about 75 *dharmashalas* at the principal villages along the part of the Indore-Burhanpur road which passed through the District. In 26 villages of the District on that road, there were wells for drinking water. In 1856, besides these *dharmahsalas* there were four travellers' bungalows on the roads in this District. In 1864 too, there were excellent staging bungalows, and *dharmashalas* for travellers at the important halting places on the main roads of the District. But with the advent of the railways, the District roads remained uncared for. Consequently, the road traffic considerably diminished.

With the advent of motor vehicles and improvement and development of roads, road traffic began to increase. At present, for the use of travellers and tourists, there are *dharmashalas*, P. W. D. rest-houses, and Forest rest-houses at important places of the District. All *dharmashalas* afford accommodation to travellers free of charge. Rest-houses can be used by them, when not required or reserved by any Government officer, on payment of prescribed rent. There are 4 *dharmashalas* and 9 rest-houses in the District as shown in the Appendix.

1. Report on the District of Nimar, 1864, p. 8.
2. Ibid, p. 8

Hotels

There are boarding and lodging houses and hotels in the towns of Khandwa and Burhanpur. Only light refreshment is available at these hotels. Very few of them provide meals. During hot season some philanthropic persons voluntarily arrange for drinking water for convenience of the travelling public.

POST, TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES

During the Mughal period there also existed a postal system "Jahangir observed that Pigeons would deliver messages from Mandu (Malwa) to Burhanpur normally in 3 hours. But if the weather was bad they took 5 to 6 hours."[1] With the advent of the British the postal system was reorganised The Postal Act of 1854 was replaced by Act XIV of 1856 and this in turn by Act VI of 1898[2] which became the legal sanction for the working of the post offices. It was concerned with the working and control of Imperial post only. The system of postal communication in the interior of the District was different which was known as the District post. The District post line was mainly to provide communication between the headquarters of a district and revenue and police stations in the interior. For this internal postal system, general rules of the Imperial Post Office were adopted. The Nazir of the District Court used to be the Officer in charge of the District post. The police writers at station houses were the District Post Masters and at each District post office there used to be a delivery peon for the postal subdivision of the District, which corresponded with the police limits of the station house. *Dak*-runners conveyed the *dak* in the interior. Deputy Commissioners were responsible for the efficiency of this internal postal system. Police officers performed the duties of Inspector of Post Office. The expenditure was met partly by District post cess at the rate of eight annas per cent on the land revenue assesment and partly by income derived from bearing and stamped letters. Thus the internal postal system was wholly a provincial matter looked after by civil authorities.

The Indore-Deccan Mail line passed through the District and there were three post offices in the District in 1856 at Asirgarh, Bahadurpur and Mokalgaon [3] It was the main line from Calcutta to Bombay and mail carts travelled on it.[4] In 1863-64, measures were taken for the establishment of District Post Office at each police station house and at each *Sardar* station. The post-office building at Khandwa was in existence as early as 1864.[5] In the year 1868, there were eight post offices, working on internal postal system, in the District.[6] In addition to these, there were two Imperial post offices, one at Khandwa and the other at Burhan-

1. P. N. Chopra, *Some Aspects of Society and Culture During the Mughal Age*, p. 9.
2. Statistics of British India, pt. III, 1908.
3. Selections from the Records of the Government of N. W. P. 1856, p. 392.
4. Report on the District of Nimar, 1864, p. 18.
5. Ibid. p. 27
6. The Gazetteer of the Central Provinces, 1868, p. 339.

pur. In the year 1865-66 a post of Chief Inspector with powers of Post Master General was created by the Post Office Department for the Central Provinces. In the year 1867, District Post system was also entrusted to the Chief Inspector for control. Since the year 1867-68, school masters of Education Department began to work as post masters in place of police officers. When the railway line connected the District with Bombay it replaced mail horses and carts.

During the first decade of this Century, expansion of the postal system in the District remained slow. The number of post offices which served the rural and urban areas of the District varied from 42 to 52 between the years 1925-26 and 1945-46. The head office has been located at Khandwa and sub-offices at Khandwa, Burhanpur and Harsud. In recent years expansion of the postal system has been considerable in the District as indicated in the Table below.

Year	Head Office	Sub-Office	Branch Office
1959	1	15	103
1960	1	15	105
1961	1	17	117
1162	1	17	127
1963	1	17	129
1964	1	17	134

As regards the distribution of sub-offices, there were 11 sub-offices in urban areas while the rest were located in rural areas of the District. The Details are shown in Appendix.

Telegraph Offices

In 1964 eight of these sub-offices had telegraph facilities. The sub-offices providing the facilities of telegraph are located at Khandwa, Ratagarh, Burhanpur Railway Station, Harsud, Burhanpur, Nepanagar, Shahpur and Bir. In 1926, besides the three tahsil head-quarters, Burhanpur Railway Station and Ratagarh were having combined post and telegraph offices.

Telephone Offices

The telephone facilities in the District were formerly reserved exclusively for Government business. Imperial post offices were linked by telephone with main places within or without the Province. Recently, the facilities were made available to the public also. Two exchange offices were established in the District, at Khandwa and Burhanpur in the year 1950. Now all the main places in the District are linked by telephones. The total number of telephone connections

installed in the towns, along with extension is given below.—

Year	Name of Exchange				
	Khandwa Connection	Burhanpur Connection	Harsud Connection	Nepanagar Connection	Bir Connection
1961-62	185	137	n. a.	n. a.	Not opened
	(17)	(12)			
1962-63	184	137	14	8	—
	(17)	(16)	(1)	(2)	
1963-64	275	185	14	9	—
	(15)	(14)	(1)	(9)	5

Note:—Figures in brackets indicate number of extensions.

The capacity of existing switch board at Khandwa Exchange is 200 lines against which 190 have been issued. There is further demand for telephone connections. Hence it is proposed to install a switch-board having capacity of 300 lines.

The two Exchange offices in the District managing Harsud and Nepanagar public call offices, were established in 1956 and 1964, respectively, At Khandwa and Burhanpur there are three and two public call-offices, respectively. Recently, public call-offices have been opened at Shahpur, Bir and Harsud. Public call-offices at Harsud and Nepanagar have provided 8 and 6 extensions, respectively. Thus in the year 1960-61 there were in all nine public call-offices in the District.

Radio and Wireless Station

There is neither a radio station nor any licensed wireless station within the boundary of the District. Among all the broad-casting stations of the Country, Indore-Bhopal Station is the nearest to the District. The number of radio licences granted during years 1957, 1958, 1959 and 1960 was 1549; 2942; 2574 and 2862 respectively.

CHAPTER VIII

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

This Chapter is complementary in its nature and is intended to complete the picture of the economy of the District. In the previous Chapters on Agriculture, Industries, Banking, Trade and Commerce, the important sectors in the economy were dealt with at length. But these sectors by themselves do not exhaust the entire economic activity of the population. There is everywhere considerable portion of population which is engaged in different occupations like teaching, medicine, public administration, retailing and wholesaling of goods, hotels and restaurants, laundry business, etc. The more prosperous the economy of a district, the more varied is likely to be the pattern of occupations and *vice versa.* In a way, therefore, it may be said that this Chapter is an indicator of the stage of economic development reached in the District.

The pattern of livelihood in the District, as given in other Chapters indicates that, of the total "workers" as defined for 1961 Census purposes, 78.07 per cent were engaged in agriculture. This means only 21.93 per cent were engaged in industries, commerce, transport and other services. These percentages of "workers" in agriculture and other sectors of the economy clearly indicate their rudimentary conditions in the economy in the District. Under such economic conditions, development of other occupations cannot but be perfunctory. However, in the wider national interest Government have decided to promote development of occupations like teaching and medicine under the Five Years Plans. As a result the number of persons in these occupations is increasing and improvement in their economic condition is also receiving growing attention.

LEARNED PROFESSIONS

Teaching

Some idea of the changes in the occupation of teaching can be had from the fact that percentage of literacy which was 16 in the year 1951, had increased to 24.5 per cent in the year 1961. The number of schools, scholars and teachers at all stages of education has increased. From the point of view of teaching as an occupation, the number of teachers only being of importance here it was found that in the year 1951 there were 622 teachers, at primary and pre-primary stages. This number in the year 1961 had increased to 1,385. During this period the number of students per teacher in the primary and pre-primary stages had also increased from 35.45 in 1951 to 36.42 in 1961. At the secondary and higher secondary

stages also the number of teachers had increased from 186 in 1951 to 247 in 1961. Similarly, the number of lecturers in colleges, which was only eight in the year 1951 had also increased to 40 in the year 1961. With the National Government's bid to drive illiteracy from amongst the masses completely, there is a great scope in teaching profession for fresh entrants. This shows the leeway that has yet to be made in the field of total literacy amongst the masses, and number of teachers required for this task can well be imagined.

Economic conditions of the persons in this occupation do not differ much from those in other similar occupations providing fixed salaried incomes. The rising cost of living everywhere in the Country is having an adverse effect, generally, on all fixed income earners; yet amongst the teachers themselves those working under the Local Bodies and private institutions were economically worst affected till recently. But the Government have stepped in to improve their lot by making the Government scales of pay and dearness allowance applicable to teachers in Local Bodies and private institutions, by providing grants-in-aid for this purpose.

Medical and Health

Another important occupation of national importance is that of medicine. The numerical strength of this occupation in the District as per Census Report of 1951 consisted of 63 registered medical practitioners, 45 *vaidyas* and *hakims*, unregistered practitioners 15, dentists 9, midwives 5, vaccinators 48, compounders 28, and 145 nurses. That is to say, there were 358 medical personnel of all types in the District for a population of 5,23,496. This gives a ratio of about 1,462 persons, per person in the medical profession. As against this according to 1961 Census National Classification of Occupations, there were 247 persons in the occupational group "physicians, surgeons and dentists". This number included 87 allopathic physicians and surgeons, 89 physicians in ayurvedic system, 12 physicians in homeopathic system, 11 dentists and 48 others. There were 425 persons in the occupational class "nurses, pharmacists and other medical and health technicians". This class included 71 nurses, 34 midwives and health visitors, 76, nursing attendants and related workers, 130 pharmacists and pharmaceutical technicians, 13 vaccinators, 89 sanitation technicians, 7 opticians and 5 medical and health technicians. Thus taking the 1961 figure of 672 persons, the proportion works out to 1019.56 persons per one man in the profession of medicine. It may, however be noted that the categories of persons like pharmacists, sanitation technicians, health technicians and even opticians cannot be treated as engaged in medical profession and hence no conclusion could be drawn regarding improvement or otherwise in medical and health services, etc., from the fall in proportion in 1961 as compared to 1951. In the rural areas of the District as elsewhere in the Country, there is a great dearth of qualified medical practitioners. Government are giving ample facilities for the persons desirous of entering this occupation by starting new medical institutions and introducing scholarships, etc. The jobs for medical graduates after passing the examination are almost certain.

Economic condition of the persons like physicians and surgeons especially in allopathy is generally satisfactory, because besides the remuneration pertaining to particular job, private practice also provides addition to income. However, the new entrants in this occupation find it difficult to establish their practice in competition with the veterans in the profession; and secondly Government's policy of providing free medical treatment to the people at Government dispensaries, as also the introduction of the enactments like Employees, State Insurance Scheme, etc., are stated to be the obstacles in the way of better economic prospects for private practitioners in the occupation. There is a great scope of employment in this occupation, provided the entrants do not hesitate to live and serve the population in rural areas.

Public Service

Services under Union, and State Governments as well as under the Local Bodies, as an occupation, in these days of planned economic development of the Country, offer quite a large employment opportunities. As the tempo of national development work increase, it becomes essential for the proper execution of that work to man the services by suitably qualified technicians and administrative personnel. All sorts of technicians are in greater demand in the Union as well as State Government services, as also clerical and other workers in administration. In the year 1951, in this District there were 25 Union Government employees, 843 State Government and 233 Local Bodies employees.[1] In the year 1961, the number of persons in administrative departments and offices of the Central Government increased to 114; in the State Government administrative departments and offices there were 2,058 persons, and in the quasi-Government organization, Municipalities and Local Bodies the number was 765. Though these figures are not exactly comparable, yet they are indicative of the growing opportunities of employment for entrants in this occupation.

All the persons in this occupation being fixed income-earners, are hard pressed economically, because of the rising cost of living everywhere. As amongst these categories of employees, those in Central Government service are economically better off than those under the State Government and Local Bodies employment. This is so because the resources of the State Government, and next to them, those of Local Bodies are limited and the rising cost of living could not be off-set by increasing the dearness allowance to the extent desirable. However, persons in this occupation get the benefits of provident fund, old age pension, gratuity, etc. Facilities for reimbursement of medical treatment expenses incurred on self and families also exist. Housing accommodation is also provided, especially to such persons whose presence near the place of work is necessary for all times. Because of these, and other guaranteed service conditions, the educated people are always on the lookout for entrance in this occupation. As such there are always more applicants for jobs in the Government service than the number of jobs available.

1. These figures are exclusive of those classified under different divisions of the occupational classification.

Law

From amongst the learned professions, the profession of a lawyer calls forth special abilities of the person entering the occupation. Besides being conversant with the intricacies of different enactments a lawyer requires fluency of speech, flair for oratory and impressive personality. More than this, since a lawyer cannot lend his services unless desired by the clients, quite a long period of apprenticeship has to be gone through before his services are in demand. Because of these conditions, occupation of lawyer is not a great attraction. As such in the year 1951, in this District there were only 87 persons, including lawyers, petition-writers, etc. By 1961 within a period of ten years the number of all persons like barristers, advocates, solicitors *mukteers*, pleaders, *munshis*, etc., connected with the occupation had increased to 147. This meagro increase in the number of persons in the occupation, inspite of the considerable State and Central Government legislation, speaks of the occuational difficulties.

Economic condition of the persons in this occupation has to be considered not generally but separately for the persons with long standing and repute and those for the fresh entrants, the former being well-off economically, and the latter finding it difficult even to make a living. There is always a tendency amongst the fresh entrants either to seek jobs or to supplement the earnings in the occupation by taking to pastures new. In the year 1961, there were two editors, journalists and related workers in the District.

Occupations of teachers, doctors, lawyers, journalists etc., might be broadly termed as learned professions. Besides these, there are other occupations like retail and whole-sale trade, money-lending, etc., which are connected with the commercial activity.

COMMERCIAL ACTIVITY

Retail Trade

In the year 1951, the number of retail traders in grain and pulses, sweet-meats, dairy products, animals for food, fodder for animals, vegetables, fruits, and other food stuffs was 4,437. The comparable figure for retail traders in similar goods increased to 5,576 in the year 1961. Retail trade in textile and leather goods was carried on by 1,063 persons in 1951. In the year 1961 the retailers in all kinds of textiles alone numbered 1,091. Retail-traders in leather goods numoered 68. Retail trade in *pan*, bidis and cigarettes provided occupation to 275 persons in the year 1951, but in 1961 the number increased nearly three fold and retail trade in tobacco. bidi cigarettes and other tobacco products was carried on by 788 persons. Vendors of wine, liquors, aerated waters, ice, etc., were 53 in the year 1951. Retailing in wines and liquors, beverages such as tea, coffee, aerated water altogether engaged 44 persons only in 1961. It is difficult to draw any conclusions about the conditions in retail trade from the figures as above but they broadly indicate stagnant conditions in trade over a period of decade, which is just in

keeping with the developmental condition in the other important sectors of the economy dealt with in previous Chapters.

Whole-sale Trade

Whole-sale trade of all types in the year 1951 engaged 722 persons, the corresponding figure for 1961 being 995. This increase in the number of whole-salers in 1961 by about 273 persons cannot be taken as indication of growing whole-sale trade activity, for as stated earlier there is lack of comparability between the figures. Moreover an increase of 273 persons in any occupation over a period of ten years is in no way considerable.

Money-Lending

The occupation of money lending is deeply rooted in the economic conditions of the Country, especially in the rural areas. This can be seen from the fact that in spite of the development of banking institutions, co-operative credit societies, etc., the money-lender still continues to be a source of credit to a large section of rural population. However, there is no scope for old time prosperity and prestige to all those already in the occupation and no prospects of increase in numbers. This is so because economic climate in the country is changing as Government have entered the field of economic development in a planned manner. In the year 1951, there were 562 money-lenders and others engaged in banking and financial business in the District. The comparable figure for 1961 was 388. The decline in the number may be attributed to the changed economic conditions and Government regulations in connection with the conduct of this occupation.

DOMESTIC SERVICES

In the field of domestic services, occupations of tailors, dhobies and barbers have undergone noticeable change with the changing economic conditions.

In the old socio-economic set-up, persons in these occupations mostly earned their livelihood by attaching themselves to some big families and working at the places of their patrons. Tailoring, laundry and hair-cutting establishments were not thought of. The remuneration for work done used to be paid annually at harvest time, mostly in kind, by the village community and by the individual patrons. In cases of big zamindars, *malguzars*, etc., the persons in these occupations formed part of the motley crowd of their dependants. These conditions have now disappeared, though traces thereof are found in the far-off village communities, remaining unscathed from the urbanising influences of cities and towns. In the urban areas everywhere, there are now tailoring, hair-cutting and laundry establishments, where customers are not lacking. Besides these changes, these occupations are no longer restricted to particular castes in the society, i.e. to say a person in laundry business need not necessarily be a washerman by caste or the one working in hair-cutting establishment a barber. Such establisments are found to be run by other caste people in the society. In the occupation of tailoring even high caste people are also found.

Tailoring

Against this general background of conditions in these occupations it has been found that in the year 1951 there were 989 persons in the District classified as tailors, milliners, dress-makers and darners. In the year 1961 the persons engaged in the making of textile garments, including rain-coats, and headgears numbered 2,207. Increase in population and greater sophistication in sartorial habits of the people provide opportunities for taking up this occupation.

Laundry and Hair-cutting

There were 285 persons in 1951 engaged in laundries and laundry services. In the year 1961, this number had increased to 547. The number of barbers, hair dressers, etc., in 1951 was 1,002 while in 1961 the number of persons in similar category was 1,194.

Domestic Servants

Besides these the number of domestic servants proper, i.e., taking only two sub-categories of 1951 Census, *viz.*, (a) cooks and (b) other domestic servants the number was 1,082. This number has decreased to 954 in the year 1961. Taking into consideration the overall economic conditions of the people, who are hard-pressed to make a living, the fall in the number of domestic servants by only 165 within a period of ten years is not in any way considerable, but lack of comparability between the census figures prevents drawing of any conclusions. Conditions in the occupation have also changed. There are now rarely to be found the domestic servants like cook, maidservants, waterman, etc., employed on a full-time basis in any household. The services of domestic servants are available on part-time basis and with increasing population and lack of better employment opportunities people might be continuing to work as domestic servants and hence there is no substantial reduction in their number.

With the growth of industrial areas and urbanization of places a comparatively new occupation, *viz.*, running of hotels, boarding-houses, eating-houses, is being taken up. In the year 1951 the number of persons engaged in this occupation was 772. In the year 1961 the number of persons in this occupation in this District appears to have fallen to 508.

Repairs of cycles, fans, radios are also providing occupation to a number of persons. According to 1951 Census classification, the manufacture, assembly and repair of railway equipment, motor vehicles, bicycles, etc., engaged only 16 persons in the District. The figure includes railway fitters also. In the year 1961 repairing of bicycles alone provided occupation to 323 persons. This increase in the number is likely to have been the result of the development of bicycle industry in the Country and the greater number of people taking to the cycle which is a cheap mode of conveyance.

The number of persons working in precious stones, precious metals, jewellery, etc., was 681 in the year 1951. In the year 1961, the number of persons in the

similar category of occupation was 884. This increase in the number is difficult to explain in view of the soaring prices of precious metals, and Government policy of discouraging the purchase and sale of these metals to conserve foreign exchange resources.

The persons engaged in recreation services (i.e., production and distribution of motion pictures and the operations of cinemas and other allied services, managers and employees of theatres, opera companies, musicians, actors, dancers, conjurers, acrobats, wrestlers, *pahalwans*, recitors, exhibitors of curiosities and wild animals, radio broadcasting studios, etc.) in 1951 was 270 while in 1961 the number increased to 438.

The number of persons engaged in manufacture of all types of wood products (i.e., sawyers, carpenters, turners and joiners) including, furniture and fixtures of all types was 1153 in 1961 as against 1167 in 1951.

The number of persons engaged in printing and allied industries was 131 in 1951 which has increased to 141 in 1961.

The number of persons engaged in transport, storage and communications in 1951 was 2,415, including transport by road, water, air and railways, posts, telegraphs, telephones, etc., while in 1961 it was 4,828.

The number of persons engaged in religious, charitable and welfare services (i.e., priests, ministers, monks, nuns, sadhus and religious mendicants, servants in religious edifices, burial and burning grounds, pilgrim conductors and circumcisers, managers and employees of organisations and institutions rendering charitable and other welfare services) was 691 in 1951, and 917 in 1961.

CHAPTER IX

ECONOMIC TRENDS

Pattern of Livelihood

The data regarding occupational distribution and that regarding the distribution of population according to economic status as available in the Census Report of 1951 are illustrative of the pattern of living in the District.

According to 1951 Census, the population of the District with an area of 4,142 sq. miles, was 5,23,496. Out of this total 3,49,621 or about 66.92 per cent population consisted of agricultural classes, and all other classes formed only 30.08 per cent of the total population. Taking the distribution of population in the rural and urban areas of the District, the 1951 Census figures showed 4,01,490 persons in rural areas and only 1,22,006 in the urban. In percentages the rural population stood at 76.67 of the total as against 23.33 of the urban. These figures illustrate an essentially agricultural and rural pattern of living in the District. The total population of the District according to 1961 Census was 6,85,150. The rural and urban break-up of the population was 5,30,775 and 1,54,375 respectively. The percentage of rural and urban population to the total, works out to 77.51 and 22.49, respectively. These figures show that during the decade 1951-61, there was no change in the rural and agricultural set-up of the District.

The classification of population according to economic status, further illustrates the pattern of living as under.—

Agricultural Classes		
Self-supporting persons	—	93,179
Non-earning dependents	—	1,71,156
Earning dependents	—	85,286
	Total	3,49,621

The distribution shows that as against 1,78,465 economically active persons, there were 1,71,156 non-earning dependents in the year 1951 in agriculture.

The following divisions of agricultural classes indicate the status of the population in relation to the ownership of land, etc.—

i.	Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned, and their dependents.	2,04,305
ii.	Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependents.	32,047
iii.	Cultivating labourers and their dependents.	1,01,759
iv.	Non-cultivating owners of lands, agricultural rent receivers and their dependents.	11,510
	Total	3,49,621

The above figures indicate that major portion of the agricultural population in the District consists of owner-cultivators, and next to that of cultivating labourers.

The distribution of non-agricultural population according to economic status in the year 1951 was.—

Non-agricultural Classes		
Self supporting persons	—	48,418
Non-earning dependents	—	1,09,454
Earning dependents	—	16,003
	Total	1,73,875

These figures indicate that amongst the non-agricultural classes the number of economically active persons was 64,421 as against 1,09,454 non-earning dependents. The comparison between agricultural and non-agricultural classes in this respect brings out the fact that amongst argicultural classes economically active persons out-numbered the non-earning dependents, while amongst non-agricultural classes, it was the other way round, i.e., non-earning dependents were in larger numbers than the economically active population.

The population in the rural areas which was 4,01,490, consisted of 3,39,440 persons dependent on agriculture, while only 62,050 persons were dependent on non-agricultural pursuits. Economic status of the rural population dependent on agriculture and non-agricultural activities was.—

	Agricultural	Non-agricultural
Self-supporting persons	90,460	18,488
Non-earning dependents	1,64,412	32,016
Earning dependents	84,568	11,546
Total	3.39,440	62,050

The total urban population in the District which was 1,22,006 consisted of 10,131 persons dependent on agriculture, while 1,11,825 persons were dependent

on non-agricultural activities. Classification of urban population according to economic status was.—

		Agricultural	Non-agricultural
Self-supporting persons		2,719	29,930
Non-earning dependents		6,744	77,438
Earning dependents		718	4,457
	Total	10,181	1,11,825

Some significant facts regarding rural and urban population in the District arise from the above classification according to economic status. In rural areas persons dependent on agriculture were 175,028 and non-earning dependents numbered less, i.e., 1,64,412. In non-agricultural occupations in rural areas, however, economically active persons were less being 30,034, and non-earning dependents more being 32,016. The urban areas generally predominate in the non-agricultural activities and as such economically active population in non-agricultural occupations should be more than non-earning dependents on the analogy of rural population in agriculture, but in urban areas in the District non-earning dependents were more, i.e. 77,438 in non-agricultural occupations than the economically active 34,387. In agricultural occupations also the number of non-earning dependents predominate in urban areas of the District. The proportion of non-earning dependents to self-supporting persons and earning dependents was 1:2 in urban areas; while in rural areas this, proportion was 1:1.

The livelihood pattern as found from the above details appears predominantly agricultural and rural, as agricultural activities provided sustenance to larger numbers than non-agricultural activities.

It is possible to get some idea of the livelihood pattern in the District during the decade 1951-61, from the Census figures for "workers" in 1951 and 1961 given below.—

Livelihood class	1951	Percentage of total no. of workers	1961	Percentage of total no of workers
1. Agriculture	179,217	74.51	272,857	78.07
2. Production other than cultivation	24,703	10.27	34,658	9.93
3. Commerce	11,675	4.85	11,511	3.30
4. Transport	3,027	1.26	4,341	1.24
5. Other services	21,905	9.11	26,042	7.46

Note:—Comparative figures are worked out as per Note on working force estimates given in Annexure 1 to 1961 Census, Paper No. 1 of 1962.

General population increase in the year 1961, over that of the year 1951 in the District was of the order of 30.87 per cent. Percentage increase in the number of workers in the year 1961 over that of 1951 was 45.16. Taking the percentages of different livelihood classes, there is an increase only in the percentage of workers in the livelihood class, agriculture, in 1961 over that of 1951. In all other classes there is a decline in the percentages. This means that the burden of increase in population has fallen on agriculture, and that all other livelihood classes, instead of sharing the burden of increase in population are actually incapable of providing sustenance even to those who were already engaged in those occupations a decade before.

GENERAL LEVEL OF PRICES

The staple foodgrain of the District is jowar. In the year 1891, the average price of this foodgrain was 22.4 seers a rupee but in the year 1900 the price was 10.4 seers a rupee. During this 10 years period, price of jowar was lowest in the year 1898 being 26.6 seers a rupee. Wheat and rice which sold in the year 1891 at the rate of 13.0 seers and 12.5 seers a rupee, respectively, was sold in the year 1900 at 9.4 and 9.6 seers per rupee. Similarly gram which was sold at 14.8 seers a rupee in the year 1891 was sold in the year 1900 at 10.4 seers a rupee It is thus observed that general price level of foodgrains in the year 1900 was higher as compared to the previous years. Except for jowar, prices of other foodgrains were highest in the year 1897, during the ten years period*(1891-1900), and this was due to the State-wide famine. Similarly, the overall rise in prices in the year 1900, can be attributed to failure of monsoon in the year 1899, which had no precedent in the annals of the State.

After 1900 the foodgrain prices generally continued to be at a lower level though not as low as the prices in the decade before 1900, except for the year 1897. The level of foodgrain prices again rose in the year 1908 The price of jowar in this year was 10.40 seers a rupee. This price, though little lower was generally at the same level as that in the year 1900. Prices of wheat, rice and gram were 7.80, 6.70 and 8.65 seers per rupee, respectively. This over-all increase in the prices of foodgrains in the year 1908 was due to the drought conditions all over the State in the year 1907-8. After 1908, prices of jowar—staple foodgrain of the District immediately came down to a lower level than those of wheat and rice. Prices for these two latter foodgrains remained at a comparatively higher level during the years 1909 and 1910.

On the eve of the First World War (1914-18), i.e., in the year 1913, jowar was sold at 12.60 seers, wheat 10.90 seers; rice 7.35 seers and gram 13.05 seers per rupee. In the succeeding year, i.e., 1914, prices of foodgrains boosted up except that of jowar which had fallen from 12.60 seers to 12.90 seers a rupee. Prices of wheat, rice and gram in the year 1914 had risen to 9 15; 6.77 and 10.27 seers a rupee, respectively. Even during the War years the prices did not remain continuously at a higher level. There was a general fall in the prices of all food-

grains in the year 1916. Jowar was sold at 16.47 seers a rupee, wheat 9.28, rice 7.52 and gram 11.01 seers a rupee, respectively. This year due to favourable monsoon conditions the out-turn of the foodgrains was generally above normal and this was reflected in the easy price trends inspite of the War conditions. After 1916, prices of all the foodgrains showed increasing trend during the succeeding years 1917, 1918 and 1919. The year 1916 was the turning point, as it were, because during the succeeding years upto 1920 the prices ruled higher in respect of all foodgrains.

After 1930 downward trend in prices of foodgrains was set. Taking the period from 1931 to 1938, the year preceding the Second World War, lowest price of staple foodgrain in the District, i.e., jowar, obtained in the year 1931, being 20.85 seers a rupee. Wheat was lowest in the year 1933, i.e., 13.50 seers a rupee. Rice was lowest in the two years 1933 and 1934, i.e., 11.55 seers a rupee and gram was lowest in the year 1932, 15.10 seers a rupee.

The retail prices of jowar, wheat, rice and gram from 1938 to 1945 were as under.—

(In seers per Re.)

Year	Jowar	Wheat	Rice	Gram
1938	13.42	10.25	10.35	11.68
1939	14.26	9.00	9.20	..
1940	13.27	10.00	7.25	10.40
1941	14.47	8.93	6.17	10.53
1942	8.16	6.20	4.69	6.54
1943	3.69	2.50	2.64	3.37
1944	4.53	2.24	2.55	3.51
1945	6.00	3.93	3.7	4.36

By the end of the War the percentage increase in the prices in the year 1945, over that of 1938, was about 124 in case of jowar, 161 in case of wheat, 179 in case of rice and 168 in case of gram.

The above Table depicts the trends in prices during the War period. Obviously the crucial year for the people was 1944, which saw a steep rise in prices of foodgrains, except a slight fall in the price of jowar over the preoceding year.

The price control measures in the wake of the War due to scarcity conditions were taken in the year 1939. The then Government of the Central Provinces and Berar vide their Commerce and Industries Department Notification of September, 1939 evoked the "Essential Commodity" Ordinance under the Defence of India Rules. As the War progressed and scarcity conditions persisted, the price regulation measures were tightened. In the year 1942, the then Government issued a circuler memorandum to all the Deputy Commissioners regarding fixation of

maximum price of wheat. According to the Schedule attached to this memorandum maximum whole-sale price of wheat at Khandwa was fixed at Rs. 5-15-1, and maximum retail price at Rs. 6-3-7 per maund. In the year 1945, the retail price of jowar in the District ruled at 6 seers a rupee and in 1946 at 5.50 seers. In the year 1947, the provisioning rates of jowar were quoted at 5 seers and 4.50 seers, while market rate was 2 to 3 seers only.

After completion of the War in 1945 taking 1946-47 as a base year, the whole-sale harvest prices of the foodgrains were.—

(In Rs. per maund)

Year	Jowar	Wheat	Rice	Gram
1946-47	6.75	11.0	9.62	15.50
1947-48	12.00	36.0	18.00	16.00
1948-49	14.00	23.0	14.50	14.00
1949-50	12.00	19.0	15.00	10.50
1950-51	16.50	24.31	22.37	—
1951-52	14.80	18.63	19.50	16.00
1952-53	12.36	22.53	18.57	18.03
1953-54	12.25	17.44	18-00	12.56
1954-55	6.44	13.00	12.37	6.44
1955-56	9.00	16.31	11.19	8.56
1956-57	12.88	16.56	18-00	10.94
1957-58	10.46	15.34	—	11.61
1958-59	11.24	18-75	—	16.50
1959-60	12.75	14.93	18.30	11.42
1960-61	12.13	16.58	18.00	12.32

From the Table above it is seen that immediately after 1946-47, the prices of all foodgrains immediately shot up in the year 1947-48. The jowar price had risen from Rs. 6.75 to Rs. 12 per maund, i.e., nearly double the price in 1946-47, price of wheat had risen from Rs. 11 to Rs. 36 per maund, i.e., more than three times the price in 1946-47. Rice had risen from Rs. 9.62 to Rs. 18 per maund, i.e., double the price in 1946-47. The least increase was in the price of gram. The reason for this general rise in prices was the removal of all bans on the inter-district movement of foodgrains and abandonment of the rigid system of monopoly procurement by the Government. In the year 1948, the Government of India reviewed the food situation and came to the conclusion that decontrol was a failure. They accordingly decided that controls should be re-imposed in all States. For Madhya Pradesh, however, it was agreed that the then existing system of "partial compulsory procurement" should continue. The result of this step was seen in the downward trend in prices in the year 1948-49, except for jowar, the price of which further increased in that year. Increase in the price of jowar was due to the unfavourable season for the jowar crop, the grain being spoilt by un-

timely rains. In the year 1950-51, there was again rise in prices. This rise in prices can be explained by the unsatisfactory crop conditions, and measures taken by Government to check hoarding and profiteering in foodgrains like jowar, rice and wheat.

After 1950-51 there was gradual improvement in the food situation. The policy of gradual relaxation of controls was followed. As a result, after 1950-51, there was some stability in the prices of foodgrains. The impact of "Grow More Food Campaign" under the First Five Year Plan began to be felt in increasing food production and easing of the price situation. The production figures of rice, jowar, wheat and gram in the District from 1950-51 to 1958-59 are given below.—

(In '000 tons)

Year	Rice	Jowar	Wheat	Gram
1950-51	9.9	33.7	14.4	3.3
1951-52	8.9	40.3	12.3	2.4
1952-53	14.3	32.6	7.9	1.2
1953-54	10.8	56.2	10.6	1.8
1954-55	10.9	53.7	17 1	3.2
1955-56	14.1	36.8	17.8	1.0
1956-57	19.8	55.1	19.3	6.6
1957-58	11.2	67.6	6.0	1.4
1958-59	16.3	73.2	13.3	3.4
1959-60	11.7	70.3	23.2	6.3
1960-61	16.9	72.6	15.8	3.2

During the first year of the Second Five Year Plan, i.e., 1956-57, there was a general rise in the prices of foodgrains over the prices of the previous year (1955-56) inspite of the general increase in the production of foodgrains over the previous year. In the second year of the Second Five Year Plan (1957-58) there was a rise in the prices of rice and gram which can be explained by the fall in the production of these foodgrains; but inspite of the fall in the production of wheat, there was a slight fall in its price over the previous year. Fall in the price of jowar can reasonably be explained, by the increase in the production of this staple food crop of the District.

WAGE LEVEL

Rural Wages

In respect of the wage rates in rural areas as available for certain categories of workers like agricultural labourer, carpenter, mason and blacksmith, it was found that inspite of the famine conditions in 1897 and widespread failure of monsoon in 1900 affecting foodgrains production and consequent rise in prices, there was no appreciable rise in wage-rates of these workers. In 1893, for example, the monthly wage of the agricultural labourer was Rs. 6. The mason, the carpenter and blacksmith all were paid Rs. 15 per month. In the year 1897, the agricultural

labourer got Rs. 5 per month, the wages of other categories remaining the same. In the year 1900, there was rise by annas eight per month in the wages of agricultural labourer (i.e. from Rs. 5 to Rs. 5-8-0 per month) but there was no change in the rates of wages paid to the other categories of workers. In the year 1907, however, there was a general rise in the wage-rates of all the above four categories of workers. This was the year of drought throughout the Province, and foodgrain prices had risen in the District. Thus, it was found that the wages in rural areas ruled stable more or less from 1893 to 1906. The upward swing in the rates of wages in the District was observable from 1910. In 1910 wage-rates for skilled workers, i.e., mason, carpenter and blacksmith rose from Rs. 15 per month in 1909 to Rs. 22-8-0 in 1910, but agricultural labourer got Rs. 6 per month as in the previous year, i.e., 1909. Another upward swing was taken in the year 1912. During this year wage-rates for skilled workers rose from Rs. 22 per month of the previous year to Rs. 25 per month and common agricultural labourer got Rs. 7 per month against Rs. 6 per month of the previous year.

In the year 1913, i.e., the year preceding the First World War, there was again a rise in the wage level of skilled workers, the rate being Rs. 30 per month for all the three categories against Rs. 25 per month of the previous year. The agricultural labourer, however, got Rs. 7 per month as in the year 1912. During all the War years from 1914 to 1917, wages for all the four categories of workers remained constant at the level of 1913. Like the trends in price level there was a tendency towards stability in the wage-rates also during the First World War period. Next push upwards was observed in wage-rates during 1918, when the rates were Rs. 9 per month for agricultural labourer, and Rs. 35 per month for all the three categories of skilled workers. There was a further rise in the wages of skilled workers in 1919, when mason and blacksmith got Rs. 40 per month and carpenter Rs. 45 per month There was however, a fall in the wage-rates of agricultural labourer from Rs. 9 to Rs. 8 per month.

During the following years up to 1927 wage-rates for skilled workers moved from Rs. 40 to Rs. 45 per month; while those of agricultural labourer from Rs. 10 to Rs. 16 per month. In the year 1928 wage-rates of blacksmith, were at a premium as compared to other skilled workers being Rs. 50 per month. In the year 1929, the minimum and maximum rates of wages for skilled workers moved from Rs. 40 to Rs. 60 per month and common agricultural labourer earned from Rs 15 to Rs. 22-8-0 per month.

From 1930 onwards the downward trend in the wage-rates was observed. This was also a period of world-wide economic depression. From the year 1931 to 1939 the minimum wage-rate that the skilled worker got was Rs. 35 per month. The minimum and maximum wage-rates for agricultural labourer moved from Rs. 5-10-0 to Rs. 11-7-0 per month.

The rural wages for all the above four categories of the workers in the year 1939 were Rs. 9 to Rs. 10 for male and Rs. 7 per month for female agricultural

labourer; Rs. 22 to Rs. 30 per month for mason; Rs. 30 to Rs. 35 per month for carpenter and for blacksmith, Rs. 30 per month. Thus, in the year 1939, generally wage level of the year 1918 was obtained. The rates of wages for rural workers from 1939 to 1947 were.—

(In Rs. per month)

Year	Agricultural Labourer	Mason	Carpenter	Blacksmith
1939	9 to 10 (male)	22 to 30	30 to 35	30
	7 (female)	.	..	..
1942	10 (male)	30 to 35	40	30 to 45
	7 (female)	..	..	..
1943	13 to 18 (male)	25 to 45	45 to 60	45 to 60
	10 (female)	..	..	..
1944	20 to 22 (male)	45 to 60	48 to 60	45 to 60
	13 to 15 (female)	..	..	..
1945	20 to 22 (male)	60 to 75	60 to 100	60 to 75
	13 to 15 (female)	..	..	..
1945	20 to 25 (male)	70 to 85	70 to 80	60 to 75
1946	15 to 18 (female)	..	..	..
1946	30 to			
1947	37-8-0 (male)	90 to 105	90 to 105	75 to 90
	22-8-0 to			
	26-8-0 (female)			

From the above Table it becomes obvious that the Second World War period was a period of continuous rise in the rates of wages in the rural areas for all categories of workers, *viz.*, skilled and unskilled. It is also interesting to note that the level of Re. 1 per day for agricultural labourer was first reached in the year 1947.

Urban Wages

At this stage comparison between rural and urban wages can be made for the similar categories of workers. The wage-rates given below were for Khandwa town.—

(In Rs. per month)

Year	Common Labourer	Mason and Builders	Carpenters	Workers in Iron and Hardware
1939	4 to 10	22 to 30	30 to 35	30
1940	6 to 10	25 to 30	25 to 30	30
1942	10 to 15	30 to 35	40	30 to 45
1943	..	35 to 45	45 to 60	45 to 60
1944	20 to 22	..	..	..
1945	..	60 to 75	60 to 100	60 to 75
1946	10 to 25	70 to 85	70 to 80	60 to 75
1947	..	..	..	..

From the two Tables given above it appears that during the War period, the wage-rates of skilled and unskilled workers in the rural and urban areas remained more or less on par with each other. In the year following the end of the War, i.e., in 1946, the maximum for common labourer in the rural and urban areas was Rs. 25 per month, while minimum and maximum for masons, carpenters and blacksmiths remained almost the same. Comparative statement of rural and urban wages at Khandwa from 1948 to 1955 is given below.—

	Rural Wages			Urban Wages		
Year	Blacksmith	Carpenter	Other Agricultural Labourer	Worker in Iron and hardware	Carpenter	Common Labourer
	Rs. As.	Rs. As.	Rs. As	Rs. As.	Rs. As,	Rs. As.
1848	2 — 8 to 5 — 0	2 — 8 to 3 — 0	1 — 0 to 1 — 8	3 — 8 to 4 — 0	3 — 0 to 4 — 0	0 —12 to 1 — 8
1849	2 — 8 to 4 — 0	2 — 8 to 3 — 8	1 — 0 to 1 — 8	3 — 8 to 4 — 0	4 — 0 to 4 — 0	0 —19 to 1 — 4
1950	3 — 8 to 4 — 0	2 — 8 to 4 — 0	1 — 0 to 1 — 8	3 — 8 to 4 — 0	3 — 0 to 4 — 0	0 —10 to 1 — 4
1951	3 — 0 to 4 — 0	3 — 0 to 4 — 0	1 — 0 to 1 — 8	3 — 8 to 4 — 0	3 — 0 to 4 — 0	0 —12 to 1 — 4
1952	3 — 0 to 4 — 0	3 — 0 to 4 — 0	1 — 0 to 1 — 8	3 — 8 to 4 — 0	3 — 0 to 4 — 0	0 —12 to 1 — 4
1953	3 — 0 to 4 — 0	2 — 8 to 4 — 0	1 — 0 to 1 — 8	3 — 8 to 4 — 0	3 — 0 to 4 — 0	0 —12 to 1 — 4
1954	3 — 0 to 4 — 0	2 — 8 to 4 — 0	1 — 0 to 1 — 8	3 — 8 to 4 — 0	3 — 0 to 4 — 0	1 — 0 to 1 — 4
1955	3 — 0 to 4 — 0	2 — 8 to 4 — 0	1 — 0 to 1 — 8	3 — 0 to 4 — 0	3 — 0 to 4 — 0	1 — 0 to 1 — 4

It can be seen from this statement that from the year 1948 onwards, the "other agricultural labourer" started getting one rupee per day as minimum while maximum that he got was Rs. 1-8-0 only. This wage-rate had remained constant during the following years. On the contrary his counterpart in the urban area got only annas 0-12 0 as a minimum though the maximum wage he could get was Rs. 1-8-0 in the year 1948. For the following years it was observed that the common labourer in urban areas could get maximum of Rs. 1-4-0 only per day for all the years. while his minimum reached Re. 1 per day in 1954. Thus it can be said that common agricultural labourer in the District was at a premium compared to his counterpart in urban areas. The wage-rates of skilled workers like

carpenters and blacksmiths showed the tendency to remain on par both in rural and urban areas. Rural wages from the year 1956 to 1960 were.—

(In Rs. per month)

Year	Balcksmith	Carpenter	Other Agricultural Labourer
1956	2.50	3.00	1.00
1957	2.50	2.50	0.75
1958	2.00	2.00	0.75
1959	2.00	2.00	1.00
1960	2.00	2.00	1.50

Note—Wage rates are for the month of March in every year.

The wages of carpenter and other agricultural labourer had fallen in the year 1957. From 1958 to 1960, the wage-rates of blacksmith and carpenter remained at Rs. 2 per day, while those of other agricultural labourer fluctuated, reaching the level of Rs. 1.50 per day in 1960. The data regarding wage-rates for comparable categories of workers in urban areas being not available after 1955, for urban areas minimum wages fixed under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948 for Scheduled Industries might be taken as a guide. These wage-rates are essentially the wage-rates for industrial workers. The comparative wage-rates for 1956 and 1959 fixed under the Minimum Wages Act in the District for some of the industries were.—

(In Rs. per day)

Industry	Category of Workers	1956	1959
(1) Rice, Flour and *Dal* Mills	Unskilled	1.00 per day	1. 75 for Burhnnpur 1. 50 Khandwa
	Skilled	N.A.	3. 50 Burhanpur 3. 25 Khandwa
(2) Oil Mills	Unskilled	1.25	1. 75 Burhanpur 1. 50 Khandwa
	Skilled	N.A.	3. 50 Burhanpur 3. 25 Khandwa
(3) Bidi Making	Bidi Roller	1.43 for 1000 bidis, Burhanpur	1. 62 Burhanpur
		1.37 for 1000 bidis, Khandwa	1. 56 Khandwa
(4) Road construction and building operation	Unskilled	1,00	1. 75 Burhanpur 1. 50 Khandwa

The above statement shows that the minimum wages for unskilled workers in the industries in the year 1956 were near about the same as those for "other agricultural labourer" in rural areas. But for industrial workers it was the

minimum fixed under the law and not the rates of wages the workers actually received. But comparing the minimum wage-rates for 1956 and 1959 in industries alone, there was an upward revision of the wages in 1959. The minimum wages fixed for skilled workers in industries were definitely higher than those actually received by the blacksmiths, carpenters, etc., i.e., skilled workers in the rural areas. Generally after 1959, the unskilled worker in the industries got more than his counterpart in the rural areas engaged in agriculture.

Standard of Living

In finding out the standard of living of the population, which depends on a number of factors, cognisance has to be taken first of the livelihood pattern. In this respect, it was found that the pattern of living in the District was essentially agricultural, the percentage of population dependent on agriculture in 1951 being 66 78 per cent of the total population. From amongst all the four agricultural classes, "Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned" formed 58.43 per cent of the total population of all agricultural classes. The "Non-cultivating owners of land" formed 3.29 per cent of agricultural population. Thus ownership of agricultural land vested in 61.72 per cent of the agricultural population.

Out of the total of 92,503 agricultural holdings in the District, in the year 1951, 21,901 fell under the size group of exceeding 10 acres but not exceeding 20. This was the highest size group. But next to this came 13,608 holdings which fell in the size group of not exceeding one acre. This shows that quite a sizeable portion of the landholders were eking out their existence from the uneconomic holding of land.

Next in importance in regard to population after the "Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned," came the "Cultivating labourers and their dependents" being 29.10 per cent of all agricultural classes The "Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned" formed 9.16 per cent of the total of agricultural classes. The self-supporting persons in agricultural classes formed 26.65 per cent of the total of that class, while non-earning dependents formed 48.96 per cent of the class, the rest of them about 24.39 per cent being the earning dependents. The mainstay of population in the District is agriculture, and numerical strength in absolute figures of non-earning dependents was higher in agriculture than in non-agricultural occupations, i.e., 1,71,156, against 1,09,454 in the latter class.

According to the first Agricultural Labour Enquiry conducted in 1950-51, Nimar District was included in Cotton jowar zone of the State. The average size of the agricultural labour family consisted of 4.5 persons with an earning strength of 2.8. With this earning strength, the average annual income of the agricultural labour family in Cotton-jowar zone was estimated at Rs. 414. The expenditure per family on the contrary was Rs. 438 for consumption and Rs. 6 for ceremonies. These figures broadly give some idea regarding the economic conditions of the agricultural labour families in the Cotton-jowar zone which can be taken circumstantially as representing the conditions of agricultural labour in the

District which falls under that zone. Looking to the consumption pattern 85.8 per cent of total expenditure was on food items; 6.4 per cent on clothing and footwear and 6.3 per cent on services and miscellaneous group. The average annual expenditure on jowar for the zone stood at Rs. 257.3, rice Rs. 35.5 and wheat Rs. 4.7. The staple food crop of the District is jowar.

The U. N. Committee of experts on the Measurement of Standards and Levels of Living lays down that the term "standard of living" embodied three different concepts.—

(i) "Levels of living" which relates to the actual living conditions,

(ii) "Standards of living" which relates to the aspirations and expectations of a people, i.e., the living conditions which they seek to attain, and

(iii) "Norms of living" which relates to the desirable conditions of living as defined for specific purposes.

The result of the Agricultural Labour Enquiry regarding Cotton-jowar zone indirectly brings into focus the first of the above three aspects, i.e., "Levels of living" of the term "Standard of living." The second and third aspects of the term are dependent on the first because without any definite improvement in the living conditions, aspirations and desirability have no place.

The consumption standards are usually conditioned by the income levels of the people and when the classification of population into the categories like rich, middle-class and poor is made, the basis of such classification becomes the range of aggregate individual or family income. But besides income and expenditure, there are other factors like environment, social frame work, caste and creed, customs or rituals, etc., which exert great influence on the standard of living of the people. But income and expenditure being the only criterion, subject to exact quantitative measurement, the standard of living is always decided by income and expenditure of different classes. In this connection sample family-budget enquiry conducted in the Khandwa town in 1954-55 by the Nilkantheshawar College, Commerce Wing, revealed the following.

The family was composed of an average number of six persons—males 2.05, females 1.7 and children 2.25. The monthly income of the families varied from Rs. 65 to Rs. 900. The percentage of families having monthly income below Rs. 100 was 28.1 and with monthly income above Rs. 300 was 16.2 Families within an income range of Rs. 100—300 were the largest single group forming 55.6 per cent. Thus 83.7 per cent of the families came within the income range of Rs. 300 and less. The percentage expenditure of income on different items of consumption for different income groups was.—

Item	General average	Below Rs. 1000 per month	Between Rs. 101—300 per month	Above Rs. 301 per month
Food	47.5	55.1	49.4	38.0
Clothing	10.4	9.8	11.0	10.6

House rent	7.7	6.5	8.0	8.6
Fuel and light	5.0	5.6	4.9	4.5
Education, health and recreation	15.6	11.9	18.0	16.9
Miscellaneous	12.1	12.4	9.0	15.0
Savings and investment	1.7	1.3	0.3	6 4

The general average expenditure on food was 47.5 per cent of the average income, less than the average of 55 per cent computed by Engel. Food eaten by the people is simple. They avoid the use of gorgeous and decorative garments. The residential houses are old ones without the provision of modern amenities. However, the percentage expenditure on items like education, health and recreation are next in importance to food. Miscellaneous items of expenditure include payments to barber, washerman, sweeper, *pan*, bidi, tabacco, caste dinners, social or religious ceremonies, postage, etc. Although the average budget shows savings and investment of 1.7 per cent of income for all income groups, the savings and investment of the people below income group of Rs. 300 per month are illusory.

GENERAL LEVEL OF EMPLOYMENT

East Nimar District is predominantly agricultural in its economy and larger employment opportunities are generally available during harvesting season between October to February every year in agricultural operations as well as in seasonal industries like ginning and pressing, oil mills, etc., which function during harvesting season when cotton and oil seeds become available. People working in these factories are paid both in cash and in kind. They are also employed on contract basis. Because of the seasonal nature of work wages paid to the workers are generally higher. Agriculture is the hereditary occupation of most of the people in the District. The whole family can get work during busy agricultural seasons like sowing and harvesting. These factors make the major group of unskilled workers generally immobile. Apart from these seasonal industries, there are no other big industries in the District offering employment opportunities. There is one big textile mill at Burhanpur and National Newsprint and Paper Mill at Nepanagar, but their manpower requirements are not substantial and sometimes only technical type of vacancies are referred to the Employment Exchange.

As regards Central Government establishments functioning in the District, these are very few and on a small-scale, such as Indore Tax Office, Khandwa; Superintendent Central Excise, Khandwa; Assistant Engineer, Central Water and Power Commission, Khandwa. None of the Heads of these offices is an appointing authority. There are a few Central and Western Railway establishments functioning in this area but no appointing authority is located within the jurisdiction of the Exchange area.

The State Government, quasi-Government, Local Bodies and private establishments offer scope for employment. Some idea of the magnitude and scope for employment in the public sector can be had from the following particulars for 1958 and 1959.

The total number of employees with 165 establishments in the public sector falling under the area of Khandwa Employment Exchange. were 14,883 on 30th June, 1958, which rose to 15,082 on 30th September, 1958, an increase of 199 persons or 1.33 per cent during the quarter.

During the quarter ending December, 1958 there was a decline of 1.40 per cent in the level of employment in public sector There was increase in employment in the Local Bodies establishments while decline was observed in State Government establishments. The employment position of Central and quasi-Government establishments remained static.

The total number of employees with 104 establishments on 31st December, 1958 was 14,017 which rose to 14,270 on 31st March, 1959, i.e., 1.8 per cent. The reasons for increase were the expansion of the educational institutions, appointment of substitutes in place of teachers sent for Normal School training and engagement of extra labourers by the Public Works Department for the completion of work before the close of financial year.

In the next quarter, i.e., 30th June, 1959 there was a total increase of 210 persons which was reported by 117 establishments. The increase was shared by all the sections of the public sector except the Central Government establishments where there was a decline in employment. The reasons for increase were the engagement of casual workers in D. D. T. spraying work and the opening of two Block Offices.

In giving the employment trends in the District for the year ending 31st December 1963, it has been stated in the Employment Market Report that, "In the private and public sectors combined together the total employment increased to 19,263 as on 31st December, 1963, from 18,867 as on 31st December, 1962, thus recording an increase of 396 persons."

In the private sector, a nominal decrease of 174 persons was reported, the total employment being 8,828 as on 31st December, 1963, against 9,002 as on 31st December 1962. Giving the reason for this decline in employment. it was observed that "The employment trend in the private sector is mostly seasonal since in the East Nimar District there are a number of seasonal industries like cotton-ginning and pressing factories and oil mills. During the off-seasons i.e., in the months of June to January the employment in these seasonal industries is practically nil as almost all these factories start re-functioning during the harvesting season employment prospects brighten up as employment is provided to a good number of persons."

For the above period, i.e., 31st December, 1962 to 31st December, 1963, the establishment in the public sector, *viz.*, in the 85 reporting establishments the total employment was 10,435 as on 31st December, 1963 against 9,865 in the 78 establishments as on 31st December 1962. The increase in employment was 570 persons or 5.8 per cent.

The shifting of population from Agriculture to Industry is of a seasonal nature, when cotton-ginning and pressing factories, and oil units begin to work after harvesting season. Agriculture is hereditary occupation of the major portion of population and according to the First Agricultural Labour Enquiry average days of unemployment of adult male worker in Cotton-Jowar zone in which Nimar District falls, were only 55 i.e., near about two months. The duration of the period of unemployment being not much and there being no greater scope of employment in the industries, the shifting of agricultural population to the industries is negligible. According to the list of factories, 1962, there were 26 cotton-ginning and 11 cotton-pressing factories registered under the Factories Act. But these factories are not perennial. Burhanpur Tapti Mills is the only one big textile unit which employed on an average 2231 workers in the year 1962. The scope for fresh employment for unskilled workers in the Mill is very little. The other three spinning and weaving units together offered employment to not more than 50 workers daily. The bidi factories, providing employment to agricultural workers were 12 in the year 1962. Besides, bidi-rolling being carried on at home during spare time the question of shifting from agricultural land becomes unnecessary. The National Newsprint and Paper Mill also provided employment to about 762 workers daily in the year 1962. But here also there is little scope for fresh employment of unskilled workers.

There is no scope for shifting of population from one industry to another because there are only two big units, Paper and Textile, offering employment to over 1,000 workers daily. These units fall under what is called organised industries, where all the benefits of regular pay-scales, wage-rates, provident fund, sickness insurance, etc., are provided. Nature of work also differs considerably requiring skill and efficiency. Therefore, tendency for shifting from one industry to another in normal conditions foregoing all the advantages of length of service etc., are nil.

Employment Exchange

The Employment Exchange, Khandwa started functioning in the District with effect from the 25th July, 1957 under the Second Five Year Plan period. This Exchange had a jurisdiction over two districts, i.e., East and West Nimar upto March 1960, when separate Employment Exchange started working at Khargone.

The Employment Market Information Scheme in the public sector was introduced with effect from May, 1958. The nature of information collected under this Scheme is already given in previous pages in the form of extracts from

Quarterly and Annual Reports. Some idea of the working of the Exchange can be had from the figures of registrations and placings given below from 1957 to 1963.

Year	Registrations	Placings	No. on Live Register
1957	1,641	69	438
1958	2,762	515	934
1959	3,056	478	1,082
1960	2,868	459	951
1961	3,403	800	1,004
1962	4,763	773	1,436
1963	4,745	1051	1,476
1964	5,314	974	1,665

NATIONAL PLANNING AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Community Development Programme is one of the important projects which the Country initiated during the First Five Year Plan. It embodies a method of approach to problems of improving rural life under condition of democratic planning. In the year 1952, the Government of India launched a nation-wide Community Development Programme.

In Nimar District first Community Development Block was started on 2nd October, 1953, at Shahpur in Burhanpur Tahsil. This Block was started as National Extension Service Block but was converted as Community Development Block on the 1st April, 1956. On 1st April, 1954 two National Extension Blocks were started, one at Khandwa, and the other at Harsud in Harsud Tahsil. Both these Blocks were converted to Community Development Blocks on the 1st April, 1955 and 1st April, 1957, respectively. Another Block at Khaknar in Burhanpur Tahsil was started on 2nd October, 1956. Next Block was started at Punasa in Khandwa Tahsil on the 1st April, 1957. Later two other Blocks were started at Khalwa in Harsud Tahsil and Pandhana in Khandwa Tahsil on 1st April, 1959, and 1st October, 1960, respectively. At Chhegaon—Makhan in Khandwa Tahsil, and at Baldi in Harsud Tahsil, Community development programme was started on 2nd October, 1961 and 2nd October, 1962. Thus by the year 1962 the total number of Blocks in the District was nine. On the 30th August, 1958 the Government in the Planning and Development Department by the issue of Notification changed the old classification of Community Development and National Extension Service Blocks and instead introduced the classification of Class I, II and pre-extension Blocks. This classification was brought into effect retrospectively from 1st April, 1958. According to this new classification the Blocks at Shahpur, Khandwa, Harsud, Khaknar and Punasa were stage II Development Blocks as on 2nd October, 1963 The remaining four were stage I Development Blocks. The area, number of villages and population under each of these Blocks is.—

Name of the Block	No. of Villages	Area in sq. miles	Population
1. Shahpur	143	732	199,382
2. Khandwa	122	290	44,192
3. Harsud	112	256	44,568
4. Khaknar	136	489	68,295
5. Punasa	168	491	69,275
6. Khalwa	157	801	61,487
7. Pandhana	141	418	71,280
8. Chhegaon Makhan	114	264	45,763
9. Baldi	102	348	39,430
	1,195	4,089	5,64,672

Thus, all the nine Community Develpopment Blocks in the District by October, 1962, covered a total population of 5,64.672 persons residing in 1,195 villages, covering an area of 4,089 sq. miles. Total Government expenditure of the First Five Year Plan on different items of development work was Rs. 16,26.586. Expenditure during the Second Five Year Plan period was Rs. 18,34,295. Details of expenditure against different Heads were as given in the Appendix—A.

The Community Development activities can be considered under following broad headings.—

Agricultural Extension

In the field of agriculture, physical achievements indicate growing tendency in using improved seeds, chemical fertilizers, compost manures, etc. During the Second Five Year Plan period in the then existing Blocks 35,086 and 11,465 maunds of improved seeds and chemical fertilizers, respectively were distributed. The use of insecticides, dusters, and sprayers is becoming popular. There was a considerable increase in the distribution of improved implements, i.e., from 15 in number in 1959-60 to 79 in 1960-61 and 326 in 1961-62. The number of agricultural demonstrations also increased from 1,306 in 1959-60 to 1,573 in 1960-61. In 1961-62 the number of demonstations was 1,207. Though there was a reduction in the number in this year yet these figures indicate the growing interest of the population in the better methods of cultivation

Irrigation

In the matter of irrigation the figures for net additional area likely to be irrigated (in acres) during 1959-60 stood at 947, while in 1960-61, the area increased to 957 acres. In 1961-62 the area in acres was 951. In 1959-60, 167 wells were constructed and 59 wells were repaired while in 1960-61, 135 wells were constructed and 105 were repaired. In 1961-62, 44 wells were constructed and 124 wells were repaired. Pumps run on electric power or by diesel engine have been installed on these wells. With the extension of the scheme of rural electrification, irrigation

is likely to increase in future. Seventy two pumping sets were installed in the year 1959-60 and 75 in the year 1960-61. In 1961-62, 142 pumping sets were installed.

Land Reclamation

In the year 1959-60 2,805 acres of land was reclaimed; while in the year 1960-61 and in 1961-62 the area reclaimed was 3,161 and 3,410 acres, respectively.

Animal Husbandry

With the Extension staff in the field, preventive measures to combat cattle epidemics have been organized. Attempts were being made towards improvement of cattle breed by providing pedigree animals.

Education

By the end of 31st March, 1958, in five Development Block areas, 83 new schools were working, and 39 ordinary schools were converted into Basic Schools. In 1959-60 there were 272 schools functioning in the District, in 1960-61 the number was 366 and in 1961-62 there were 393 ordinary and Basic Schools. These figures indicate the attempts that are being made to accelerate, the pace of educating the people.

Social Education

Organization of the village recreation clubs, youth clubs, farmer's unions, mahila samities and community centres are becoming popular. In the year 1959-60, 34 Adult Education Centres were started and 541 adults were made literate; in 1960-61, 32 centres were started and 377 adults were made literate, and in 1961-62, 190 adults were made literate. Facilities of libraries and reading rooms are also being availed of by the populace. Cultural squads and *kisan melas* have proved useful.

Health and Sanitation

In the community project areas, Primary Health Centres have been provided at the head-quarters of each block with maternity and child-welfare facilities. The Primary Health Centres in 1959-60 were four while in 1960-61 one more centre was added. In 1961-62 there were six Primary Health Centres working. As against 12 rural dispensaries in 1959-60, there were 20 such dispensaries in 1960-61. In the year 1961-62 the number of rural dispensaries remained the same. Construction of drains, provision of soakagepits, etc., are also progressing apace.

Communication

Construction of *kutcha* and *pucka* roads is being undertaken in project areas with a view to providing communication facilities to the agriculturists in certain hitherto neglected areas.

Co-operation

Progress of co-operative activities in the community project areas can be seen from the number of all types of co-operative societies and their membership. In 1959-60 there were 53 societies with 4,375 members. In 1960-61 the number of societies was 62 and in 1961-62 there were 20 co-operative societies.

In writing generally about the impact of Community Development Programme on the life of the people, the Committee appointed to evaluate the programme wrote in its report that......"on the whole it cannot be denied that the impact of the programme has increased certain amenities in the villages and introduced a number of improvements in the village life. There is also no denying of the fact these improvements have come through active participation of people......"

CHAPTER X

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

The administrative history of East Nimar District, before and after the commencement of the British rule, has already been given in Chapter II (History) and Chapter I (General), respectively, of this volume. It may, however, be restated that the territory comprising the District of East Nimar, then known as the Sindhia's Nimar, was transferred to the Central Provinces on the 1st May 1864. It constituted the 18th District of the Central Provinces.

The District was incorporated in the newly formed Nerbudda Commissionership, the headquarters of which was temporarily fixed at Betul. Later, the headquarters of the Division was permanently moved to Hoshangabad.[1] The District headquarters was soon after shifted from Mandleshwar to Khandwa. The reconstituted District had an area of 3,900 sq. miles and a population of 2,00,000.[2] The Nimar territory was then intermingled with that of the then Indore State. Efforts to achieve compact boundaries of the District were made in 1868. In the territorial adjustments that followed the tract comprising Kasrawad Pargana, including Mandleshwar with Barwaha tahsil, was transferred to Indore State.

With the incorporation of Sindhia's Nimar in the Central Provinces, the civil establishment of the Agency underwent a change. Formerly the civil establishment consisted of a Political Agent, three Deputy Collectors and a Munsif.[3] The Political Agent and Deputy Collectors were redesignated as Deputy Commissioner and Extra-Assistant Commissioners, respectively. The territory which was constituted as District retained its age-old name of Nimar. Pargana-wise revenue establishments headed by *Kamavisdars*, yielded place to tahsil-wise groupings of revenue establishments headed by Tahsildars or Sub-Collectors of revenue. They were assisted by Naib-Tahsildars or Deputy Sub-Collectors. Abolition of Pargana-wise establishments helped Government in reducing the number of officers and thereby saving 37 per cent of expenditure.

For administrative purposes the District, in the beginning, was rearranged into four tahsils, namely, Khandwa, Burhanpur, Barwaha and Punasa. Of these Barwaha tahsil in its bulk was transferred to the Holkar State and the tahsil headquarters was shifted to Mortakka. Later on when Punasa tashil was found poor in respect of revenue and population, it was merged partly in Khandwa and partly

1. Report on the District of Nimar, 1864, p. 14.
2. Ibid, p. 22.

in Mortakka tahsils. Tahsildar or Sub-Collector of revenue assisted by Naib-Tahsildar was in charge of each of the tahsils. Besides revenue work, he was also vested with petty civil and criminal jurisdiction within his circle.

Other establishments of the District administration too, were taken up for reorganisation by the Government. Former police establishment of the District was of miscellaneous character and required an immediate reorganization on the pattern obtaining in the rest of the Province.[1] A police officer of the Central Provinces was immediately deputed to the District to carry out reorganization of the Nimar police force both foot and horse. In the field of forestry the employment of a special officer for the examination of the forests of the District was for the first time sanctioned.[2] For public works of minor nature the District Officer remained responsible. Since 1859, schools of the District were under the charge of a District Inspector of Schools. During the year 1864-65 the regular educational machinery of the Central Provinces was established in Nimar.[3] The District Officer was authorised to establish at Khandwa scales for the weighment of opium for the export duty then leviable at Bombay, on the principle applied to Nagpur and Betul districts.[4] In short, administrative measures to bring Nimar under the system of administration of the Central Provinces were set afoot in 1864.

Office of the Deputy Commissioner

Following the decentralisation of administration in the District, separate departments were created from time to time to look after the work of various branches of administration, such as, settlement and land records, registration and stamps, police, forest, education, excise, medical and public health, judicial both civil and criminal, etc. The District under the charge of the Deputy Commissioner, was the unit of general administration. The Deputy Commissioner exercised general control over the working of all departmental establishments of the Government in all matters which affected the interest of his charge. Being the head of the District Administration in all branches he was directly responsible for the administration of all the Government Acts extended and applied to this District. Besides, the Deputy Commissioner was the District Magistrate. Within the limits of his charge the ultimate responsibility of prevention, detection and punishment of crime rested with him For this purpose the police force of the District was under his control and direction.

A notable change was effected in the pattern of District administration when, in 1904, the Sub-Divisional system was introduced in East Nimar. Under this system, Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners were placed in charge of each of the three tahsils, which were declared Sub-Divisions, and the Assistant or Extra-Assistant Commissioners, in charge of a Sub-Division, were designated as Sub-Divisional Officers. Each Sub-Division had a Tahsildar and a

1. Ibid.
2. Ibid, p. 29.
3. Ibid, p. 23.
4. Ibid, p. 26.

Naib-Tahsildar. The civil staff consisted of a District Judge and a Sub-Judge. Besides, Khandwa and Burhanpur had two Munsifs each. The Tahsildars were appointed as additional Munsifs. There was also an honorary Extra-Assistant Commissioner at Burhanpur with 1st Class powers. Benches of honorary Magistrate with 3rd Class powers existed at Khandwa, Burhanpur and Mandhata.[1]

Till the year 1917 Deputy Commissioner acted as an ex-officio Chairman of the Municipality of Khandwa.

In other local self-Government bodies like District Council and Local Boards too, powers both of veto and of initiative were reserved to him. He was also the Registrar of civil marriages. In the field of industries, agriculture and irrigation he exerted his control because for a long period there were no establishments for these departments in this District. In addition to this whenever necessity of controls on food and civil supplies arose, the Deputy Commissioner was the supreme authority at District level.

The post-Independence period has witnessed a number of vital changes in the sphere of administration. The post of Commissioner, to whom Deputy Commissioner was responsible, was abolished in 1948 and the Deputy Commissioner came under the direct control of the Government. Since 1953, when Community Development and National Extension Service Blocks were established in the District, the Deputy Commissioner came to occupy a key position in the Plan schemes. However, the post of Commissioner was revived in 1956, and East Nimar was placed in Indore Division.

Collectorate

The general administration of the District vests in the Collector-cum-District Magistrate who prior to 1956, was designated as the Deputy Commissioner. As Collector, he is responsible for general and revenue administration, while as District Magistrate the over-all responsibility for maintenance of law and order rests with him. In order to assist him in the performance of his dual functions, there were six Deputy Collectors in 1965. Occasionally, an Assistant Collector is also posted in the District. At present, there is an Assistant Collector posted at Burhanpur as the Sub-Divisional Officer and the Additional District Magistrate. Of the six Deputy Collectors, two are incharge of the remaining Sub-Divisions. One Deputy Collector each looks after the Treasury and Registration, Food, Development section of the collectorate and office of the Collector. Besides, there are three Deputy Collectors as trainees.

For the administration of the land revenue and other allied matters, the District is divided into three tahsils, *viz*, Khandwa, Burhanpur and Harsud, each tahsil constituting a Sub-Division. Each Sub-Division is incharge of a Sub-Divisional Officer who resides in his respective Sub-Divisional headquarters.

1. Nimar District Gazetteer, 1908, p. 183.

These Officers also act as Chief Executive Officers of the respective Janapada Sabhas. The tahsil is in the charge of a Tahsildar, who is assisted in his work by Naib-Tahsildars. The number of Naib-Tahsildars in each tahsil depends on the quantity of work the tahsil has to deal with. At present Khandwa tahsil has six, Burhanpur four and Harsud two Naib-Tahsildars. At village level the work of land revenue and land records is entrusted to Patwaris, whose work is supervised by Revenue Inspectors. In 1964 there were 287 Patwaris and 15 Revenue Inspectors in the District.

The Superintendent of Land Records, and two Assistant Superintendents of Land Records supervise the work of Patwaris and Revenue Inspectors. This staff is under the administrative control of Director of Land Records.

Before the abolition of proprietorship there used to be a *Mukaddam* for each village. The *Mukaddams* were replaced by Patels in 1951. The Patels are paid commission at fixed rates. As an experimental measure, the duties of Patels were, in the first instance, entrusted to 15 Gram Panchayats of the District, five in each tahsil. Later 15 more Gram Panchayats were given the rights of Patelship. Thus in 1960 there were 30 Gram Panchayats in the District on which Patelship was conferred. There was no change in their number till May 1965.

In the capacity of District Magistrate, the Collector is responsible for maintaining law and order in the District. In this work he receives assistance from Magistracy, Nyaya Panchayats, Police, Home Guards and Kotwars or the village watchmen. Magistracy include Sub-Divisional Officers at Khandwa, Burhanpur and Harsud, who are usually invested with the powers of Additional District Magistrate.

Planning and Development Section

Developmental activities in the District are special charge of the Collector since the start of the planned development of the country. In this work, he is assisted by a Deputy Collector, who is incharge of the Development Section of the Collectorate. There are nine Development Blocks in East Nimar District, namely, Shahpur, Khandwa, Harsud, Khaknar Punasa, Khalwa, Pandhana, Baldi and Chhegaon-Makhan. Each Block is headed by a Block Development Officer, who is assisted by a team of Extension Officers drawn from the various development departments. All these officers work under the Collector's control and guidance. The Collector coordinates the activities in the Blocks so as to ensure uniform development of the whole District. The Collector is the ex-officio Chairman of the District Development Committee.

Treasury and Registration Section

In addition to these functions the Collector is responsible for a large variety of functions. He controls the District Treasury of Khandwa with the assistance of a Deputy Collector, designated as the Treasury Officer. He is also responsible for executing the Registration Act. The Treasury Officer functions as the District

Registrar. There are three sub-registration offices at Khandwa, Burhanpur and Harsud. The offices at Khandwa and Burhanpur are managed by Departmental Sub-Registrars, while at Harsud, the Tahsildar is the ex-officio Sub-Registrar. Enforcement of the Excise and Prohibition Acts is vested in him. The District Excise Officer helps him in this work.

Besides, the work relating to elections, food and civil supplies, consolidation of holdings, census and welfare of backward classes is also entrusted to the Collector.

The Collector is also associated with a number of official and non-official committees, e.g., the District Advisory Committee, the District Soldiers, Sailors and Airmen Board, etc.

On account of the multifarious activities that the Collector performs and the power of general supervision that he exercises over the activities of other State departments at the District level, he has inevitably become the pivot round whom the administrative machinery of the district revolves.

STATE OFFICES

The organisational set-up of various departments in the District is given below.—

Excise Department

The District Excise Officer, assisted by two Excise Inspectors, and 10 Excise Sub-Inspectors is responsible for administration of Acts like Prohibition, Excise, Stamp, Opium, Opium-Smoking, Dangerous Drugs, Nagariya Sthawar Sampatti Adhiniyam 1964, Medical and Toilet preparation, and Fiscal Acts like Entertainment Duty Act and Tobacco Act. The District Excise Officer works under the direct supervision of the Collector. Prohibition of liquor was for the first time introduced in the District on 1st October, 1946, and total prohibition of opium, *ganja*, *bhang* and hemp drugs, etc., was commenced from 1st January, 1948. There is also situated a *Ganja* Store-house for supply of *ganja* to the whole of Madhya Pradesh. *Ganja* is grown in the District and all *ganja* grown is brought to Government store, Khandwa, where it is cleaned, bagged and afterwards issued to various Districts. Of the two Excise Inspectors one is also Ganja Officer. Entertainment Duty Act, 1936 and C. P. and Berar Tobacco Act of 1939 have been made applicable to the District and are administered by the District office of Excise Department. For the present the former Act is applicable only to Khandwa, Burhanpur, Shahpur and Harsud. The District Excise Officer is directly responsible to the Assistant Excise Commissioner, Indore Division, Indore.

Sales Tax Department

The C. P. and Berar Sales Tax Act was made applicable to the District from 1st June, 1947 and was first being administered by the Excise Department. Its

general administration and control was with the Deputy Commissioner (Collector). From 1st April 1953, however, a separate Sales Tax Department was created, with Sales Tax Commissioner as Head of the Department. The Sales Tax Officer is the head of the department at the District level. He is assisted by three Assistant Sales Tax Officers and six Sales Tax Inspectors. Administration of M. P. General Sales Tax Act, 1956, Madhya Pradesh Sales of Motor Spirit and Lubricants Taxation Act. 1958, and Central Sales Tax Act, 1956 was entrusted to this department from 1st April, 1959. Prior to 1956 the District Office was under Assistant-Commissioner, Sales Tax, Jabalpur. Now it is under Regional Assistant Commissioner, Sales Tax, Indore.

Medical and Public Health Department

The Civil Surgeon is the administrative head of the office of the Medical and Public Health Department in the District. All hospitals and dispensaries of Government and others run by the Janapada Sabhas of the District work under his management and supervision. There are three hospitals (including one for women and children), 13 Allopathic, 12 Ayurvedic and one Homeopathic dispensaries, 16 Primary Health Centres and 30 Sub-Centres, a Tuberculosis clinic, a Laprosy clinic and one sub-clinic working under the management and supervision of the Civil Surgeon. He is assisted by one Additional Civil Surgeon and a number of Assistant Surgeons and Assistant Medical Officers.

Malaria Eradication Programme

Since the year 1947-48, two Anti-Malaria units were functioning in the District. In July 1953, National Malaria Control Scheme was launched in the District. The two Anti-Malaria Units were amalgmated and placed under Malaria Medical Officer, whose headquarters was at Khandwa. Under the scheme, six Junior Malaria Inspectors were posted at Burhanpur, Khaknar, Khandwa, Harsud, Borgaon, and Mandhata In 1959, the National Malaria Eradication Programme replaced the Malaria Control Scheme and three sub-units were established in the District. Jurisdiction of one of the units since then has been extended to Harda tahsil of Hoshangabad District also. Malaria Medical Officer is assisted by an Assistant Unit Officer, three Senior and three Junior Malaria Inspectors, 22 Surveillance Inspectors, and other subodinate staff. The National Malaria Eradication Programme Unit comes under the jurisdiction of Bhopal Division and is under the administrative control of Assistant Director of Health Services (Malaria), Bhopal.

Panchayats and Social Welfare Department

As a result of the recommendations of the Social Education Enquiry Committee, appointed by the Government of Madhya Pradesh in 1952, the Social Welfare Department was established in the year 1953, and the scheme of Social Education, launched in the year 1948 by the Education Department, was entrusted to it. The office of the Social Welfare Officer was established in the District in the year 1953. Later, work relating to the Panchayats was also entrusted to this

Department and, therefore, the officer incharge of these activities came to be known as the District Panchayats and Social Welfare Officer.

District Panchayats and Welfare Officer carries on all his duties under the guidance and control of the Collector. He is assisted by eight Panchayat Extension Officers, seven Social Education Organisers, of whom five are ladies, and a number of Sub-Auditors, *Kalakars*, Village Assistants, etc. The District Panchayats and Welfare Officer is responsible to the Divisional Panchayats and Welfare Officer, Indore Division, Indore.

Inspection and guidance of Gram Panchayats and Nyaya Panchayats of the District, extension of Panchayat activities, organisation of training camps for the Panchas and Sarpanchas, organisation and management of Social Education classes for adults, circulating libraries, open reading rooms and cultural activities like cinema shows, dramas, *bhajans, kirtans*, etc., are some of the important functions of this department. It also gives annual grants-in-aid to the voluntary social service organisations of the District. One Bal Sanskar Kendra for educating the children of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes is conducted by the department at Burhanpur. The department has also started a District Shelter Home for exprisoners. Recently, a Reception Centre for the misguided women has been established at Burhanpur.

Publicity Office

The office of the District Publicity Officer, with headquarters at Khandwa, has been functioning in the District since 1st October, 1958. The officer works under the guidance and with the advice of Collector and is directly responsible to the Director of Information and Publicity, Bhopal. At District level, District Publicity Officer is the head of the Office. He is assisted by his skeleton subordinate staff.

The main duty of the District Publicity Officer is to publicise important activities of the State Government by giving factual information. He has to keep a watch over the local press and to send clippings of critical news-items to the Directorate at Bhopal to be scrutinised and contradicted, if necessary. The office also arranges exhibitions at the time of fairs or other important occasions with a view to educating public opinion and creating Plan-consciousness among the people.

Statistical Office

The office of the District Statistical Officer, was started in East Nimar, with its headquarters at Khandwa, on 18th March, 1957. The District Statistical Officer, with one Statistical Assistant and a skeleton subordinate staff, works under the advice and control of the Collector although he is directly responsible to the Director of Economics and Statisties, Bhopal. The office collects and analyses the statistical data and presents the same in a systematic manner to the Government. Besides, this officer conducts sample surveys like one per cent census of births and deaths in the District. The officer also inspects the work of Progress Assistants

of various Development Blocks of the District and provides them technical guidance.

Office of the District Inspector of Weights and Measures

The office of the District Inspector of Weights and measures, with its headquarters at Khandwa, was established in February, 1960.

The District Inspector is responsible to the Assistant Controller of Weights and Measures, Indore Division, Indore. The office administers the Weights and Messures (Enforcement) Act, 1959. At Burhanpur there is an office of the Assistant Inspector of Weights and Measures.

Tribal Welfare Department

Office of the District Organiser of Tribal Welfare is functioning in the District since 4th January, 1963 at Khandwa, its headquarters. The District Organiser is the head at District level and he is assisted by two Circle Organisers. He looks to the educational, economic, social and cultural welfare of the Backward Classes, including Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and *Vanya Jatis.* He manages schools of the tribal areas, providing hostel facilities and awarding scholarships and stipends to students. Besides, he arranges free supply of books and stationary and also lodging and boarding facilities for them. He also gives agricultural subsidies and taccavis and organises co-operative societies for tribals.

Formerly, these functions were performed by the Collector directly. The District Organiser works under the control and guidance of the Collector.

Labour Department

For the purposes of labour administration the State is divided into Divisions and Sub-Divisions. The jurisdiction of Burhanpur Sub-Division, established in July 1957, extends to two Districts, *viz.*, East Nimar and West Nimar. An Assistant Labour Officer is the head of this Sub-Division with headquarters at Burhanpur. He is assigned the powers of the Labour Officer under the M.P. Industrial Relations Act. Besides, he has been delcared as Additional Inspector for the enforcement of other Acts like the Factories Act, Shops and Commercial Estiblishment Act, etc. The Assistant Labour Officer is responsible to the Assistant Labour Commissioner, Indore Division, Indore.

For the enforcement of the Shops and Commercial Establishments Act, applied to the towns of Khandwa and Burhanpur, an Assistant Shops Inspector, with headquarter at Burhanpur, is attached to this office. He is also an Inspector for enforcing other Acts. Besides, there is a Labour Weifare Supervisor, looking after the Labour Welfare-Centre at Burhanpur.

Fisheries Department

Prior to 1958, the work of piscicultural development in the District was entrusted to the Assistant Fisheries Development Officer, West Nimar, with

headquarters at Khargone. But in 1958 the office was shifted to Khandwa. It is incharge of fisheries development activities in both, East Nimar and West Nimar Districts.

Under this Office there is one sub-office of Fisheries Inspector, whose headquarters is at Barwah (West Nimar). In the Third Five Year Plan, a new scheme of 'Intensive Pisciculture' has been initiated for which one Assistant Fisheries Officer is posted at Khandwa.

Electricity Board

Chanderi Power House Division of the Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board under the charge of a Divisional Engineer, Nepanagar, is located in the District He is assisted by a team of eight Assistant Engineers, all of whom are stationed at Nepanagar, and other subordinate staff. Two of the Sub-Divisions of this Division are located in this District, one each at Khandwa and Burhanpur. The Divisional Engineer is under the immediate control of the Superintending Engineer, West Circle, Indore.

Khandwa Sub-Division is looked after by an Assistant Engineer, with his headquarters at Khandwa. He is in charge of the work connected with the electricity in Khandwa town and rural areas of Khandwa and Harsud tahsils. In all 16 villages in rural areas of this Sub-Division have been electrified so far

Similarly, the Burhanpur Sub-Division is under an Assistant Engineer, who looks after the work in Burhanpur town and tahsil. Five villages in this tahsil are receiving electric supply.

Employment Exchange

An Employment Exchange was established at Khandwa in June, 1957. This Exchange had jurisdiction over two Districts, namely, East Nimar and West Nimar, up to 15th March, 1960. There after, a separate Exchange was started at Khargone for West Nimar. Consequently, Khandwa Exchange now looks after the work in East Nimar District only. The office is headed by an Employment Officer, who is helped by a Statistical Assistant and other sub ordinate staff

There are a few other important offices of the State Government which have been dealt with in the chapter on 'Other Departments.'

UNION GOVERNMENT OFFICES

The following offices of the Government of India are located at Khandwa. Their set-up is given below —

Income Tax Office

Income Tax Office was established at Khandwa in 1922. The jurisdiction of the Income Tax Officer at Khandwa has undergone various changes from time

to time. Initially there used to be one Income Tax Officer for the East-Nimar District. Later, Burhanpur Tahsil was attached to Income Tax Officer, Khargone and in its place District Hoshangabad, except Narsimhapur Sub-Division, was placed in charge of Income Tax Officer, Khandwa. In 1949, an additional Income Tax Officer was posted in the District. The Income Tax Officer 'A' ward had jurisdiction over East Nimar District and the Income Tax Officer 'B' ward's jurisdiction covered whole of the Hoshangabad District. Since the formation of Narsimhapur District, the jurisdiction of the Income Tax Officer 'A' ward continued to be East Nimar, while the Income Tax Officer 'B' ward was in charge of Hoshangabad and Betul Districts. In 1959, the headquarters of Income Tax Officer 'B' ward was shifted to Itarsi, in Hoshangabad District. Since May 1965, Income Tax Officer, Khandwa, has jurisdiction over tahsils of Burhanpur and Khandwa and 18 wards of the Municipal town of Khandwa. All the private salary cases of East Nimar as well as all company cases of East Nimar and Betul Districts also come under his jurisdiction He is assisted by one Inspector. Now the Additional Income Tax Officer, Khandwa, has his jurisdiction over Harsud tahsil, 11 of the Municipal wards of Khandwa town and Betul District, except company cases of that District He is also assisted in his work by an Inspector. The District of Betul has been attached to Khandwa circle since September, 1962.

Office of the Superintendent Central Excise

The office of the Superintendent Central Excise, Khandwa Circle, with headquarters at Khandwa, is functioning since 1957 It is incharge of a Superintendent whose jurisdiction extends over the Districts of East Nimar and West Nimar The Superintendent is subordinate to the Assistant Collector, Central Excise, Indore Division, Indore.

For purposes of Central Excise the District is divided into three ranges with their headquarters at Burhanpur, Khandwa and Nepanagar. Burhanpur Multiple Officer's Range covers the tahsil of Burhanpur and has one Deputy Superintendent, three Inspectors and four Sub-Inspectors. Khandwa Range covers tahsils of Khandwa and Harsud, having two Inspectors and one Sub-Inspector. Nepanagar Range is only for the Nepanagar factory township, having a Deputy Superintendent, two Inspectors and a Sub Inspector. The Superintendent supervises the work of all subordinate officers belonging to the above ranges. Assessment and Collection of Central Excise duties, levied on manufacutred and unmanufactured products like tobacco, cloth, paper, cotton yarn, etc., is the responsibility of this office.

Office of the Inspector of Post Offices

Inspector of Post Offices, with his headquarters at Khandwa inspects Branch post offices located in the rural areas of the District. He also receives complaints about their working and is also responsible for inspection of Sub-Post offices He is under the administrative control of the Superintendent of Post Offices, Hoshangabad.

Office of the Post Master

At District level the Post Master is the head of the office, with his headquarters at Khandwa headquarters. He is assisted by three Assistant Post Masters. Under this office, 140 Branch Post Offices were functioning in the District in March, 1965. Of these, 138 were vested with the duty of transacting Savings Bank work in rural areas.

Office of the Assistant Engineer, Central Railways

Khandwa is the headquarters of Khandwa Sub-Division of the Central Railway headed by an Assistant Engineer. He is incharge of all Permanent Way, service buildings, staff quarters, engineering works and water supply at stations falling under his jurisdiction, which extends from the outer signals of Chandni railway station to Itarsi railway station. This Sub-Divisional office is under the Divisional Engineer, Bhusawal Division, Bhusawal. The Assistant Engineer is assisted by four Permanent Way Inspectors stationed at Khandwa, Harda, Itarsi, and Bir. Besides, three Inspectors of Works are posted at the first three places. Under the Assistant Engineer, two railway workshops one each at Itarsi and Khandwa are working.

Office of the Assistant Loco Foreman

This office is responsible for the serving of Goods and Passenger railway engines that come from Itarsi and Bhusawal. It also undertakes loading of coal into engines and unloading of coal from wagons. The Assistant Loco Foreman has under him a large number of technical and non-technical personnel, including drivers, firemen, fitters, coalmen, boiler makers, etc.

The Assistant Loco Foreman, Khandwa, is directly under the administrative control of the Divisional Superintendent, Central Railways, Bhusawal.

Other Offices

Besides, there are offices of the District Savings Organiser (Ministry of Finance), the Life Insurance Corporation, Employees' State Insurance Corporation (Ministry of Labour and Employment), etc., in the District.

CHAPTER XI

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

In early mediaeval period various Rajput chieftains occupied the northern part of the District in successive immigrations. They sub-divided the Country into petty chietships. The Rajput clans brought with them the institutions of their former region. Each of these chiefs remained independent whenever possible or became the feudal vassal of the stronger; still the lord and master of his domain, but rendering military service for his fief. Among these chiefs the succession to the throne was by primogeniture, but all descendants or cadets of the house were provided for, by assignments from the productive lands of the chiefship, to be held also on tenure of military service; and so the sub-infeudation proceeded. Later, when the numerical strength of these Rajputs increased gradually, they felt it necessary to till the land by their own hands. Then personal military service became impossible except on rare occasions and a rent in kind took its place as the condition of tenure. Still the land held by each cultivator was his property, subject to the payment of the rent. This is also shown by the terms of all early grants of arable lands made by the Rajput princes as religious endowments, in which the rents only are assigned, and the Crown tenants are enjoined to pay the same to the assignees.

Of the earliest date seems the institution of a Patel or Headman in each village Copper-plates conveying grants of land of the nature mentioned above had been dug up at Ujjain, the ancient seat of the Paimaras, addressed to the *pattakila* (or Patel) and cultivators of villages. It may have been originally an elective office or the natural result of superior ability but it seems to have become hereditary.

Those Patels of the northern part of the District used to be honoured in the courts of Indian Princes. In northern Nimar, Rajput chiefs performed all such functions. When the Faruki dynasty was ruling over the Tapti valley, cultivating tribes of the south and the west migrated to this part and subsequently settled there. They brought with them the institutions of *Deshmukh* who was here a pargana or circle officer. He performed those functions which were carried out by the Patels of the north. Like the Patwari of the north, here in the Tapti valley *Pande* or *Kulkarni* used to maintain the revenue accounts. For each revenue sub-division there was a *Deshpande* who worked as a head accountant.

The supremacy of the Muhammadan princes of the house of Mandu in northern Nimar would seem to have been more a military domination than an actual appropriation of the Country. Towards the close of the dynasty we read in Ferishta of a Muhammadan governor residing at Khandwa and exacting tributes from the various petty Rajput chiefs scattered over the northern part of the District. As regards the lower Tapti valley in the south of the District, there is some documentary evidence which goes to prove that a regular revenue of the land was collected under the regime of the Faruki kings who are said to have been responsible for populating the region with industrious immigrants of the south and the west. Account of annual revenue, prior to the Mughal conquest is available of a village in Zainabad under the Faruki King, Adil Shah I. The rate of assessment was Rs. 1-9-8 per *partan* or Rs. 1-6-6 per acre. Of the total rental a proportion of 16 per cent was assigned to the Patels, 15 per cent to the pargana officials and 5 per cent for village expenses.

From the epoch-making conquest of this region (1600 A.D) by Akbar, measures were taken to operate a regular settlement in the region.[1] Burhanpur had become one of the most important and principal cities of his empire. Being the capital of one of the frontier provinces and the seat of the viceroyalty of the Deccan the city and the country around it attracted a large number of agricultural and industrial population from the surrounding regions. The presence of the court and a large number of troops at Burhanpur created a great demand for food which ultimately led to the intensification of the measures for agricultural extension. The original Rajput fiefs of the northern part could not survive this stage of development and were constituted hereditary Zamindars or fiscal officers of tracts controlled by them. For the central tract of the District a new class of revenue official called *Mandloi* was appointed. The *Mandloi* was a revenue superintendent of a *Mandal* or a circle of villages. The office of *Mandloi* too became hereditary.

The fact that with the exception of the country on the Waroha-Nagpur boundary, this District remained regularly under a Muhammadan Government, first under the Mughal Empire and then under the independent kingdoms which rose on the decline of the Delhi power lasting till the middle of the 18th Century, imparted several peculiarities to its revenue system, especially in the existence of hereditary village and pargana officers. The establishment of local offices with hereditary claim to office was characteristic of the Muhammadan system of Government. This ensured the collection of the revenue assessment without the loss which would result from the introductior of an intermediary at the risk of dishonesty which would attach to a system of regular salaried collector.

During the reign of Shah Jahan the *tanka* system of fixed assessment devised by Todar Mal was introduced in the old Nimar District. The *tankabandi*

1. The revenue income from *mahals* of Punasa and Nimawar in the *sarkar* of Handiah in the *subah* of Malwa was 25,251 and 9,46,467 *dams*, respectively, while that of Asir in the *sarkar* and *subah* of Dandesh amounted to 10,60,221 *tankas*. See Ain-i-Akbari, tr. by H S. Jarrett and revised by J.N. Sarkar, Vol. II, pp. 218 and 234.

system of assessment is the most notable feature in the revenue system of the Muhammadan. Under this system in upper Nimar no general land measurement was made but only lands growing the more valuable crops such as sugarcane, tobacco, etc., were measured by the standard *Ilahibigha*[1] For the rest an appraisement of crops was made and thereafter fixed area rates were imposed. These rates were supposed to represent one-third value of the produce. The highest rate was Rs. 12⅛ per *bigha*[2] on black sugarcane land and the lowest Rs. 1¼ on Indian corn and hemp. The assessment was made on all culturable land and the amount arrived at was called the *tanka* or revenue of the village. The total of the village assessments formed the *tanka* of the pargana. The cultivated area of a village multiplied by the area rates yielded its *tanka*. This was apparently a permanent settlement and no extra cesses were levied. At any rate, extra cesses, if at all imposed, did not pass through the accounts. All land left uncropped during the year was also exempted from assessment so that *tanka* of the village was never perhaps actually collected and gave no clear indication of the total collections. Under this system the revenue of the old Nimar District was fixed at about Rs 4.5 lakhs. The system of assessment was then from detail to aggregate and was precisely the opposite to that adopted by the Marathas, which was from aggregate to detail.

In the more settled tracts the hereditary pargana officer, the ***Deshmukh***, was held responsible for the collection of the whole *tanka* of the pargana and the Patel for that of his village. The Patel had considerable rent-free lands (*zirats*) and the *pachotra* or a drawback of five per cent on revenue collected, besides an allowance called *sadil kharch* for contingent village expenses, an item of a very elastic nature. The Patel had also assigned to him or gradually acquired prescriptively, a right to levy numerous dues in kind from the cultivators and tradesmen residing in his village as well as transit duties on goods and animals. All these items were known as *huqs* and the office, whether of Patel or pargana officer, was called *watan*. The *watan* was heritable and in the case of Patels, at all events, transferable with the consent of Government These *watans* soon became property of very high value and estimation which they retained under the subsequent Maratha rule The greatest Maratha chiefs prized them apparently more than their much more high sounding titles. That the Sindhia was always termed Patel in the revenue accounts of the territory he acquired in Nimar is an eloquent testimony to this. The *Mandloi* or the Revenue Superintendent of a circle of villages appears to have received a percentage on the revenue varying in inverse ratio to the state of advancement of the tract. In Khandwa, Zainabad and the more open parts it varied from four to eight per cent, while in Punasa and Bhamgarh the percentage amounted to a fourth or sometimes even a third of all revenue.

By the commencement of 18th Century the revenues had greatly fallen and the country gone back in cultivation. The Viceregal Court and attendant

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1. The Ilahibigha contained 3600 square Ilahiguz. An Ilahiguz was 31.4 inches (Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p. 132).
2. One bigha was equal to 5/8 acre (Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p. 63).

armies of food consumers were no longer at Burhanpur and the remoter tracts had begun to turn into jungle. Maratha incursions began as early as 1684. The District had been seized by the Nizam of the Deccan, Asaf Jah, in 1720 and the northern part was ceded to the Peshwa in 1740, Asirgarh and Burhanpur being subsequently added.

The Peshwa, succeeding Muslim Government, bestowed in 1776 the bulk of the District in jagir on the Maratha leaders, Sindhia, Holkar and Pawar. During the earlier years of the Maratha occupation, the Mughal revenue system appears to have been generally adhered to, the only change being the imposition of an all-round enhancement of 10 per cent under the name of *Sardeshmukhi.* But cesses under the name of *pattis* were gradually superadded until at the commencement of the 19th Century, the Mughal assessment was a mere name "swamped amongst the multiplicity of additional cesses that formed the total of the land revenue demand".[1] The Maratha system of assessing a lump-sum on the pargana and holding *Kamavisdars* responsible for its collection was introduced and so long as the *Kamavisdar* rendered the sum for which he was answerable, he was apparently allowed uncontrolled powers of extortion which he used to the full. The Marathas also farmed away some of their territories in large parcels, exacting from the farmer the largest sum that he would bid and leaving him to recoup himself from the peasantry. To this were added the depredations of the Pindaris with the result the condition of the people became wretched in the extreme. As a consequence the revenue of the Khandwa pargana, which had been Rs. 1¼ lakhs in 1760 had dwindled by 1822 to Rs. 53,000.

The history of the Zainabad and Manjrod parganas, which remained under Sindhia's management till 1860, was however, somewhat different. On its transfer by the Peshwa to Sindhia in 1778, the Zainabad pargana yielded a land revenue of Rs. 1.20 lakhs. But the pargana was ruined by the lawless soldiery and artillery bullocks and horses of Sindhia's army there in 1803, and a terrible famine in the following year. By the year 1808, when Zainabad pargana was assigned by Sindhia in Jagir to one of his relations the revenue had fallen by a half, but as a result of this assignment it escaped the evils of the time of trouble, except those occasioned by the ravages of war. In this area the Mughal forms of assessment were maintained and the revenue demand was restricted in order to induce cultivators from other tracts to resort to cultivation. But the assessment, though heavy at that time, was light compared to that of former days. The demand of Rs. 60,000 in 1803 had been reduced to Rs, 35,000. The history of the Manjrod pargana is identical with that of Zainabad but it suffered more than Zainabad in the famine of 1803 and when made over to the British, yielded a revenue of Rs. 200 only.

The rule of the Marathas was followed by that of the British. The earlier years of British administration were marked by the common feature of attempt-

1. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p 81.

ing to obtain too high a revenue from the conquered territory and were styled as "twenty years of mis-government" by Captain Forsyth, who carried out the settlement of the District in 1868-69. For the first few years annual assessments were made, the Government demand being assessed in Sindhia's parganas at 80 per cent of the rental.

Between 1829 and 1839, two quinquennial settlements were made. For the first 20 years of British administration the system followed was one of farming the villages to the highest bidder, the Patel being often set aside in favour of a lease-holder or farmer. The Government demand was still theoretically a third of the gross produce. It may be noted that the first Settlement was virtually a *ryotwari* one.

The period following these two settlements has been described as "twenty years of atonement" to quote Captain Forsyth again but as will be seen later, the revenue history of Nimar under British Government was one protracted battle of rival systems.[1]

The second quinquennial Settlement was followed by a fifteen-year Settlement (1839-54) in the Sindhia's parganas, which formed the bulk of the District. On this occasion the demand was slightly increased by placing an assessment on the culturable waste. The Government demand amounted to about 80 per cent of the rent-roll but half of the balance was absorbed in the perquisites of hereditary officers and in the village expenses, so that the margin of profit left to the lessees was very small. The Settlement had, however, to face a rough weather. From its commencement the price of grain fell by 65 per cent and continual large remissions had to be made, while every expedient for bolstering up the assessment was exhausted, including the extradition of ryots who absconded into foreign territory.

With a bad season in 1845 the Settlement broke down hopelessly and the farming system was pronounced a failure. This failure was attributed by the local officers to "the shortness of the leases and the absence on the part of the lessees of any permanent interest in the soil."[2]

But the main cause of the failure "was excessive over assessment, the Mahratta rates being equalled or exceeded, without the high prices which enabled them to be paid."[3] Although at this period Government had hardly progressed in land administration beyond the stage of letting villages to the highest bidder, the position of the cultivators was from the first jealously guarded. Under the second quinquennial Settlement the ryots were fully protected against ouster or enhancement by the farmers, and at the fifteen-years Settlement a regular

1. Ibid, Chief Commissioner's memo, pp. 4 and 5.
2. J.F. Dyer, Introduction to the Land Revenue and Settlement System of Central Provinces, p. 40.
3. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p. 101.

jamabandi was prepared for each village and the farmers were debarred from any enhancement of the cultivators' rents therein entered.

The failure of the farming system led to a complete reversal of policy and villages instead of being leased out were held directly by the Government and managed on what was called the *khalsa* system which was practically a *ryotwari* assessment. Under this system each cultivator's field was measured and assessed by a committee of villagers in the presence of the District Officer, to whom he was at liberty to make any objections. The Patels were reinstated in their position of village managers, and in addition to their former land and other perquisites, they were given an allowance of five per cent on the land revenue. The system lasted for about five years and the condition of the District improved under it in as much as cultivation increased while the gross assessment remained stationary. But the system was open to the objection that it gave too much power into the hands of subordinate officials, with whom lay the annual assessment of newly cultivated land and as a result corrupt practices supervened.

When sanctioning the introduction of the *khalsa* system, the Government of the North-Western Provinces was by no means satisfied with it as a permanent arrangement, and in 1847 orders were issued for its discontinuance. In its place it was proposed to make a settlement on the *mauzawar* system and a scheme was propounded which is interesting as foreshadowing the grant of proprietary right to *malguzars*. It was proposed to "create a property in the soil which should be declared to be heritable and transferable at the will of the owner and without reference to Government." But this proprietary right was only to be awarded on the condition that its recipient undertook responsibility for the revenue of the land for the period of 20 years. Further, Government gave the opinion that "the persons best entitled to be recognized as proprietors are the old resident cultivators or *junadars*." Every attempt was to be made to induce the *junadars* to form themselves into communities on the pattern of North-Western Provinces *pattidars* and to accept joint responsibility for the whole land revenue of their village with the Patel as *lambardar*. If they declined to do so, each of them was to be offered proporietary right in his holding, provided that he would agree to pay the revenue assessed upon it, and in this case the Patel was to be declared the superior proprietor of the village, or if the cultivators consented, this position might be conferred on an outsider. The settlement was to be "for 20 or 30 years and renewable on similar terms upon the then assets of the village" and was to be based on the two-thirds assets principle. The idea was that when the cultivators agreed to this course the village should be settled with them as a coparcenary body with joint responsibility for revenue or else, each *junadar* cultivator might also be offered individually the proprietary right in his holding if he engaged to pay the rent.

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1. J. F. Dyer, op. cit., p. 87.

These orders were not implemented effectively, either from a failure on the part of the District Officers to comprehend them or from a conviction that they were unworkable. The establishment of committees of cultivating proprietors was found impracticable, as the ryots almost universally refused to accept the terms. The result was that out of a total of 396 villages, 72 were settled with the cultivators jointly, 220 with the hereditary Patels, 37 with the pargana officials, and 67 with strangers. Where the cultivators did not engage for the revenue, their status was practically left undefined in the settlement papers. Even in those villages where the cultivators had jointly engaged for the revenue, the Patel was usually appointed as their representative on an allowance of 8 to 15 per cent of the revenue with his rent-free lands, and he speedily regained his old position.

In fixing revenue the principle laid down was that two-thirds of the assets should be taken by Government and one-third left to the managers. As a result, however, the revenue fell to 55½ per cent of the assets, the dues of the hereditary officials absorbed 7 per cent and a balance of 37½ per cent was left as profit. The incidence of the revenue per acre was 8 annas 9 pies and that of the rental 13 annas 4 pies. In the parganas of Selani, Punasa, Atod and Mundi the Settlement was not regularly carried out, the villages being either let to the Patels, for the term of settlement or managed direct as before. The revenue of the whole area was reduced by about Rs. 20,000. The Settlement carried out by Captain Keatings remained in force generally from 1852 to 1872.

It may be noted here that in this and the previous three Settlements, there was no systematic survey and although measurements were taken they were of a rough character and were used only as a guide. There was moreover, strong local objection to surveys being made, Lieutenant Colonel Smith, one of the first British administrators in Nimar, who served in the District in 1819, attempted to carry out the measurement of the land but found, when he began it, that it gave great offence and disturbed the minds of the people as militating against the prejudices and customs prevailing in the country.[1]

Following the proclamation for the conferment of proprietary rights in 1854, it was decided to undertake a fresh survey and settlement, to come into force at the expiry of the twenty-years' Settlement, then current. This was executed during the years 1868-69 by Captain Forsyth. The Settlement was preceded by a more detailed survey of every village than in the previous Settlements. The measurements were, however, generally rough and inaccurate. A field-map, i.e., a map showing each in its proper position with a separate number and drawn to scale was prepared for every *khalsa* village and the areas were calculated from the map by means of the talc square. Captain Forsyth's report is worth mentioning on account of its excellence. It stands out as a landmark in the fiscal history of the District[2]. That the village papers had not been carefully

1. Ibid.

2. Nimar Settlement Report, 1911-14, p. 10.

preserved after the previous Settlement and many of them were burnt on account of fire in the District Office during the course of the Great Revolt in 1857 presented new difficulties.

The principle on which the Settlement was made was to confer proprietary rights in their holdings on the old cultivators (*junadars*), giving them the *malik-makbuza* status, and then declaring the hereditary Patel superior proprietor in the village. The position of the superior proprietor in respect to the proprietary ryots was simply that of revenue collector remunerated by a commission. The *malik-makbuza* right was granted to all tenants, who were either of long standing, or had invested capital in their fields, or being relatives of the Patel, held land in lieu of a share in the village, or had brought their land under cultivation and since been in continuous possession. This right was granted to the bulk of the tenants and the Settlement was thus very largely *ryotwari*. It was only in villages held under farming leases or by revenue-free grants that absolute occupancy right was conferred. Of the remaining cultivators those who had held their land for 12 years or more received occupancy rights and those who had held it for less than 12 years were considered tenants-at-will. In fixing the rental the *malguzar* was called on to furnish a rent-roll of the land still remaining in tenancy, and this was attested in the presence of the proprietor and tenants. In the case of absolute occupancy tenants if a dispute arose about the rent, it was fixed by the Settlement Officer for the period of Settlement; in that of occupancy tenants if the parties did not agree the old rent was entered and they were referred to the Civil Court; while in the case of tenants-at-will whatever amount the proprietor chose to name was entered as the rent. The rents imposed on ordinary tenants took effect immediately, but those of other classes only on the expiry of the current Settlement.

For purposes of assessment, a circle of villages was selected as the unit. The circles (or *chaks*) were arranged by grouping together as many villages as possible whose general situation and other circumstances were nearly similar. On a consideration of its whole circumstances a gross rental was assumed for the cultivated land of each tract. The gross rental of the whole cultivated area of the District thus obtained was Rs. 2,77,399. To this were added the *siwai* assets consisting of fruit trees, mango and *mahua*, of cattle grazing and of growing wood, the amount of which was estimated at Rs. 18,998. The assumed gross assets of the District thus amounted to Rs. 2,96,397. The assets being thus ascertained, the Government revenue was fixed at a certain percentage varying between 50 to 60 per cent. It may be noted that although the general rule in the Province was then to take 50 per cent of the rental as revenue demand, this rule was suspended in the case of the Nimar District in as much as a large part of the District had till then been held *kham*, i.e., the Government took the whole rental as its revenue. The incidence of this revenue was almost exactly 10 annas on each acre of cultivation and 4 annas 7 pies on each culturable acre of the whole area settled. The assessment absorbed 53 per cent of the gross assets assumed for the Distrtct. Of the remaining 47 per cent, 30 per cent was the share of the

village proprietors, burdened by the charge of maintaining their village accountants (Patwaris) and servants and 4½ per cent on the demand for local cesses which reduced their profit to 25 per cent of the gross assets.[1]

The Settlement cost Rs. 1,14,000 and was sanctioned for 20 years from 1875-76 on the expiry of the previous Settlement.

This Settlement was extended to the Burhanpur, Zainabad and Manjrod Parganas ceded by Sindhia excluding tracts that had lately been transferred from Hoshangabad and the Chandgarh Pargana. The area in which proprietary rights were reserved for Government amounted to 1,894 sq. miles or 58 per cent of the area of the District. Every tenant had occupancy rights unless he deliberately contracted himself out. At the close of Captain Forsyth's Settlement, the area of the District stood at 3,340 sq. miles as shown below.—

Area settled on *malguzari* principles	—	1,532 sq miles
-do- on *ryotwari* principles	—	101 sq. miles
Government forests	—	1,707 sq. miles
	Total	3,340 sq. miles

As a preliminary to the re-settlement operations, a re-survey of the District was undertaken. The traversing of the boundaries of *malguzari* villages was effected by the then Imperial Survey Department in the year 1888-89. Cadastral survey within these skeleton outlines together with a preliminary record of rights was effected by the Patwaris in the year 1889-91. The settlement operations lasted from 1895 to 1898. The Settlement was confined to the previous area of the District with the addition of Chandgarh Pargana.

By this time the progress of the District was marked by many developments The railway, which in 1868 had only been carried as far as Bir, had been extended to Jabalpur, and the Rajputana-Malwa Railway, (now a part of the Western Railway) was afterwards constructed. A very large export trade, principally in jowar, cotton and oil-seeds, had sprung up. The prices of agricultural produce had risen generally by nearly 70 per cent. The occupied area had risen by 57 per cent and the cropped area by 49 per cent. Of the occupied area, 76 per cent was found to be cropped at attestation. Rents did not rise, on the contrary, the incidence of the rental had fallen from Re. 0-9-4 to Re. 0-8-3, and the average rate of *malik-makbuza* payments from Re. 0-12-1 to Re 0-11-5, due to the large extension of cultivation to the inferior soils, and to the fact that land newly broken up from waste and added to the holdings of *malik-makbuza* was usually held free of rent. The home-farm area of the *malguzars* had increased by 18,359 acres, transfers of proprietary rights had been few, and the standard of comfort was generally above the average.

1. Ibid, 1868-69, p. 283.

At this Settlement the system of soil-classification was more detailed than at the previous Settlement. Soils were grouped into 11 classes chiefly by sub-dividing the four classes adopted by Captain Forsyth. Three special soils were also recognised.

The classification and valuation of soils for determination of the rental was carried out according to the soil-unit system laid down in the Central Provinces Settlement Code.

The result of the re-settlement on the *malik-makbuzas* and the occupancy tenants, who held the bulk of the occupied area, *viz.*, 31 per cent and 52 per cent, respectively, may be seen in the following Table.—

Class	Rate per Acre			
	At Former Settlement	Prior to Revision	As Revised at Re-Settlement (1895-99)	Percentage Increase
	Re. a. p.	Re. a. p.	Re. a. p.	
Malik-Makbuzas	0-12-1	0-11-5	0-14-8	30
Occupancy tenants	0-10-1	0- 8-0	0- 9-9	21

The assets arrived at this Settlement amounted to Rs. 4.66 lakhs and may be compared with those of the previous Settlement.—

(Rs. in '000)

	At Last Settlement (1868-69)	As Revised and Announced (1895-99)
Payments of *malik-makbuzas*	1,33	1,72
Payments of Government tenants } Payments of tenants	79	3 2,05
Rental value of *sir* and *khud-kasht* land	49	69
Siwai income	20	17
Total	2,81	4,66

The great increase in rental was due to the expansion of the area occupied for cultivation. On these assets, a revenue of Rs. 2.89 lakhs or 62 per cent was fixed. The revised revenue gave an increase of Rs. 98,000 or 52 per cent over the old revenue, the revenue rate rising from Re. 0-8-9 to Re.0-9-0 per acre. The revenue assessed on the payments of *malik-makbuzas* and Government tenants was 1.45 lakhs or 83 per cent, leaving a liberal draw-back of 17 per cent to the *malguzars* for the trouble and risk of collection. Of the pure *malguzari* assets a share of 49 per cent was taken as revenue. The income of *malguzars*, as it stood immediately before revision, was reduced by only 15 per cent, no less than three-quarters of the increase in the revenue being made good by the enhancement of the payments of *malik-makbuzas* and tenants.

This Settlement dealt with the *malguzari* area, viz., 1,532 sq. miles and five *revenue-free* villages transferred from Hoshangabad with an area of 9 sq.

miles, altogether 1,541 sq. miles. The cost of Settlement was Rs. 28 per sq. mile for traverse survey, Rs. 33 per sq. mile for cadastral survey, total expenditure on the entire settlement operations amounting to Rs. 1,28,632 which gave a cost rate of Rs. 83 per sq. mile. The new Settlement came into force during the years 1897 to 1899 and was made for a period of 14 or 15 years over most of the District. It expired in 1911 in the Harsud Tahsil, in 1912 in the Khandwa Tahsil and in 1913 in the Burhanpur Tahsil.

The completion of the Settlement was immediately followed by the famine of 1899-1900, in which Nimar suffered severely though the brunt was borne by Harsud Tahsil. Liberal remissions were given in famine year, but in other years, the revenue was paid fully with ease. Thanks to cotton cultivation no revision or abatements of assessment were found necessary and the District recovered rapidly. The District showed its remarkable characteristics and inherent strength in the sense that contrary to a expectation of fall in population, there was in fact an increase of 14 per cent between 1891 and 1901.

When re-settlement operations commenced the District as then constituted had a total area of 4,227 sq. miles including some tracts transferred from Hoshangabad District of which no less than 40 per cent was included in Government forest, while another 19 per cent which was divided into *ryotwari* villages was Government forest for the most part. The District had made considerable progress since last re-settlement, and there had been an enormous increase in the wealth of the District. The occupied area in *malguzari* villages had risen by 16 per cent. At the same time, there had also been a very large expansion of cultivation in the District by reason of colonization under the *ryotwari* system. There was a steady increase in the population too, the figures for the Census of 1911 showing an increase of no less than 20 per cent. The prices had continued to rise and the large profits yielded by cotton had given a great stimulus to the cultivation of this crop with the result that cotton with its mixtures covered 43 per cent of the net cropped area of the District as compared with 26 per cent at the last Settlement. Simultaneously, cultivating profits had also risen substantially, especially in the case of cotton where a net profit of Rs. 25 per acre was estimated. The District was also in a position to export large quantities of jowar.

With these prefatory remarks, the Settlement operations of 1911-14 may be briefly noticed. As a preliminary to the Settlement, the work of map corrcetion was started in 1909-10 and was completed by 1911-12.

As regards soil classification, Montgomerie's classification, shorn of some of its elaborations which practical experience showed to be unnecessary, was adopted in Khandwa and Burhanpur tahsils. Since greater portion of the Harsud Tahsil had prior to 1896 formed part of Hoshangabad District, and Hoshangabad soil classification was in force there generally the same was allowed

to remain.[1] For purposes of land valuation the values of the different soil classes were made the subject of exhaustive discussion with the most intelligent agriculturists and the actual sale price of land which, owing to the preponderance of the *malik-makbuza* tenure was commonly bought and sold, was also brought under scrutiny. Consequently, the old soil factors were modified to suit the revision of the soil classification and slightly changed in the light of fresh experience.

The assets were estimated at Rs. 7.93 lakhs and may be compared with those at the previous Settlement.—

(In Rs)

	At last Settlement (1895-99)	Before Revision	As Revised and Announced
Malik-makbuza payments*	1,74,289	1,71,996	2,49,292
Total *malguzari* assets:			
Siwai income	18,932	32,752	27,694
Tenant's rental	2,44,205	2,95,897	3,97,402
Valuation of home-farm and rent-free holdings	83,126	59,051	1,18,613
Total	5,20,552	5,59,696	7,93,001

* Payments include quit-revenue on collecting which the *malguzars* received the usual drawback.

On the revised assets, a revenue demand of Rs. 4,78,985 was fixed as against Rs. 3,16,722 at the former Settlement and Rs. 3,17,818 prior to revision but deferred enhancements were allowed in certain cases and full revenue demand was not to mature before 1932.

The revised revenue absorbed 50 per cent of the *malguzari* assets and 85 per cent of the *malik-makbuza* payments. So much about the *malguzari* villages.

Turning to the *ryotwari* villages, the result of the revision of assessment has been given in the following Table.—

Name of Tahsil	Old Assessment		New Assessment		Percentage Increase on Occupied Land	Revised Assessment on Unoccupied Land
	On Occupied Land	Acreage Rate	On Occupied Land	Acreage Rate		
	Rs.	Re. a. p.	Rs.	Re. a. p.		Rs.
Harsud	59,683	0-5-6	78,628	0-7-3	32	4,372
Khandwa	17,977	0-4-11	26,554	0-6-9	48	2,878
Burhanpur	35,192	0-6-5	66,029	0-11-1	88	5,992
Total for District	1,12,852		1,71,211			13,242

1. For a detailed treatment of this subject the reader may refer to Chapter IV of the present Volume.

It will be seen that the revised assessment amounted to Rs. 1,71,211, enhancement being 47 per cent.

The large enhancement in the Burhanpur Tahsil was necessitated by the complete alteration of conditions since the waste, but fertile Tapti valley was opened losing all the terror which this tract had formerly inspired resulting in a stream of immigrants from Khandesh to take up the vacant plots. To induce cultivators to take up land in this dreaded, isolated and unknown tract, it was necessary to give lands on nominal assessments, but with the complete alteration of conditions it could undoubtedly bear a much heavier assessment than that which had been laid on it. To ease off the suddenness of the large enhancement, deferred assessments were made, and the full revenue assessed was not to be paid until ten years had elapsed. Throughout the District the acreage rates payable in the *ryotwari* areas were considerably lower than those assessed on the *malguzari* areas.

Taking the *malguzari* and *ryotwari* villages together, the full revised revenue of the District at the Settlement (1911-14) amounted to Rs. 6,50,196 as against Rs. 4,34,212 prior to revision.

The settlement operations lasted for a little over two years from November, 1911, to February, 1914, over an area of 2,537 sq. miles and cost Rs. 1,83,301, which gave per sq. mile expenditure of Rs. 72-4-0. The term of the revised settlement was fixed at 20 years. It was to run from the 1st July, 1913, to 30th June, 1933, in the Harsud and Khandwa tahsils, and from the 15th May, 1914, to the 15th May, 1934, in the Burhanpur Tahsil.

Although the term of the Settlement was contemplated to be 20 years only, no further settlement operations have been undertaken in the District with the result that land revenue is being paid at the rates assessed at the last Settlement. But lands which were not assessed at this Settlement, can be assessed by the Collector in accordance with the provisions in the Land Revenue Code.

Before the history of the land revenue assessment is concluded, it may, however, be mentioned that since then forecast reports on the re-settlement of District were prepared on two occasions--first in 1946 and thereafter in 1953. The Forecast Officer of the latter report, after making exhaustive enquiries was of the opinion that there was a case for heavy enhancement of the assessment. To quote him[1].—

> "I have shown in the foregoing paragraphs that profits of agriculture have almost doubled as compared to the profits at the time of the last settlement. Similarly land prices have risen by over 150 per cent as compared to the settlement prices. Subletting value has increased by over 350 per cent in comparison to the subletting value prevailing in

1 Forecast Report on the Resettlement of the Nimar District, 1953, pp 24-25.

1910-11. Prices of all agricultural commodities taken together in 1952-53 were in excess of the prices prevailing in 1910-11 by over 350 per cent. Marketing facilities and communications have also considerably improved to the advantage of the cultivators. Government are also spending huge amounts on improvements in agriculture. On the above basis, therefore, present assessment could easily be more than doubled. I, however, do not propose to go so far."

In regard to the extent of the enhancement of the demand, the Forecast Officer recommended an overall increase of 27 per cent only. In concrete terms, the proposals contemplated a rise of the total demand from Rs. 9,89,341 to Rs. 12,70,573. No action was, however, taken on this Report and no re-settlement operations were undertaken in the District. So much about the history of the land revenue assessment.

Amongst the co-sharers of the proprietary rights, the principal was known as the *sadar lambardar*, while the co-sharers were known as *lambardars*. The *sadar lambardar* as the agent of the proprietary body collected all rents and instituted all suits for arrears of rents, unless there was an imperfect partition of the tenant lands of the *mahal* among share-holders. The *sadar lambardar*, in consultation with the co-sharers, was responsible for the leasing of land and for the management of the village site and the village waste. He also paid the Government demand of his *mahal* and was responsible for the customary village expenses.

The *malguzar* was entitled to a profit of 50 per cent of the village assets until 1947-48 when it was reduced to 25 per cent under the Central Provinces Revision of Land Revenue of Estates Act, 1947 (XV of 1947).

The *lambardari* system ceased to operate from the 31st March, 1951, when, with the abolition of the *malguzari* system, all proprietary rights and interests were vested in the State under the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950 (I of 1951). This legislative measure, in fact, meant the *ryotwari* system under which cultivators hold land directly from the State. For collecting land revenue and other Government dues, Patels-cum-Mukaddams have been appointed by election in all villages and they are paid a commission by Government for this work. The Table below shows the amount of commission paid to the Patels in the District from 1950-51 to 1961-62.—

Year	Amount Rs.
1950-51	29,426
1951-52	36,695
1952-53	52,257
1953-54	8,395
1954-55	1,27,134
1955-56	91,190

(Contd....)

Year	Amount Rs.
1956-57	33,574
1957-58	1,19,856
1958-59	1,35,482
1959-60	94,818
1960-61	91,334
1961-62	57,779

As an experimental measure, the duties of Patels of 49 villages have recently been allotted to Gram Panchayats.

The land revenue is recovered in two instalments, i.e., the first instalment (*kharif kist*) now falls due on the 25th January and the second (*rabi kist*) on the 15th May. A month after these dates, a defaulter's list is prepared by the Patwari and is sent to the Tahsildar for recovery.

Cases of alienations or exemptions from revenue were exceptionally numerous in Nimar. They could be divided into two main classes.—

1. Alienations Made at the Zamindari Settlement of 1864

The Zamindari Settlement was a settlement of the claims of the old pargana officials who were by local custom called zamindars They were still drawing large emoluments but performing no services in return. There were two peculiarities in connection with the settlement of land with these zamindars, (a) In most cases a quit-rent was imposed on consideration of the free-hold tenure, fully heritable and transferable instead of being heritable only by direct heirs as in the past. (b) In 1897 it was ruled by Government that those quit rents were fixed in perpetuity and were not liable to revision at settlement.

During the course of the Settlement of 1911-14, an important ruling was given by the Government regarding *malik-makbuza* holdings included in villages of this class. They were in future to be considered as part and parcel of the jagir grant, the *malik-makbuza* being treated as a form of tenure under the jagirdar. The revenue of a *malik-makbuza* holding, held revenue-free, was on resumption of the holding to become part of the income of the jagirdar, while if the *malik-makbuza* holding was escheated, the land was to be added to the villages the *malik-makbaza* rights lapsing and the area becoming a portion of the village held like the rest in jagirdari tenure.

Grants of this nature caused no trouble either to the District authorities or to the Settlement Officer for they were in no circumstances liable to resumption, and the quit-revenue had not to be revised at each settlement, except in a few cases where it was fixed as a definite proportion of the revenue assessed at each settlement. The total number of villages held under the Settlement of 1911-14 was 44.

II. Alienations for Other Purposes

These could be classed as (a) Political, (b) Charitabe, (c) Religious, and (d) for Special service.

The total number of villages held under these grants was 56 at the Settlement of 1911-14. Most of these grants descended to the British from their predecessors and in various treaties the British contracted to continue them.

Religious grants worthy of note were those in connection with Singaji fair, and the worship of the shrine of Onkarji at Mandhata.

In all the cases under this head the grants were promptly resumed if a transfer was made by sale, mortgage or lease, or if the conditions of the grant were not complied with.

At the Settlement of 1911-14 the number of holdings held by revenue-free grantees was 769 with an area of 9,651 acres.

The number of such holdings went on diminishing with the passage of time and by 1948 there were only 18 *maufi* holdings with an area of 391.56 acres in seven villages, viz., Billora, Mandhata, Godadpur, Morgarai, Dhaonia, Nandkhedi and Piplya.

These land *maufis* were discontinued under the Central Provinces and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemptions Act, 1948 (XXXVII of 1948) and in their place annual cash grants have been sanctioned by the Government. The total annual expenditure on such grants is Rs. 5,937.

Ryotwari Estate

East Nimar was one of the important *ryotwari* districts of the former Central Provinces and Berar. At the time of the Settlement of 1911-14 the *ryotwari* estates in the District comprised 348 villages—170 in the Harsud Tahsil, 99 in the Burhanpur Tahsil and 79 in the Khandwa Tahsil and covered an area of 811 sq. miles or 32 per cent of the total area falling under Settlement. Of the 348 villages, 35 were uninhabited, and the total population at the Census of 1911 was 73,025 or 90 per sq. mile. In the Harsud Tahsil, *ryotwari* and *malguzari* villages were intermixed, though the south of the Tahsil provided a fairly solid block. In the Burhanpur Tahsil the Upper Tapti valley was almost completely *ryotwari*. The Khandwa Tahsil had scattered villages in the north and east but in the south-east corner (the Piplod tract) there was a nest of *ryotwari* villages. The soils of the Harsud and Khandwa Tahsils are generally inferior, but the Upper Tapti valley in the Burhanpur Tahsil contains some excellent soil.

The oldest part of the *ryotwari* estate lay in the Harsud Tahsil which prior to 1896 formed part of the Hoshangabad District. In this District the policy of opening out the country by a system of clearance leases had been replaced in

1892 by the *ryotwari* system. The area tranferred from Hoshangabad also included the tract known as Jamdhar-Padlia, which had been summarily settled with a lessee for a term of 30 years in Hoshangabad. As the conditions of the lease were not observed the Government declined to renew it and decided to settle it on *ryotwari* principles. This was done by the same staff which conducted the settlement operations (1895-1899) of the Nimar District. The remaining villages of the Harsud Tahsil were taken over from the Forest Department.

The older villages of the Harsud Tahsil had a somewhat chequered history. They were settled in 1892 but the settlement was not a success mainly because of a very heavy assessment, the rate being more than Re. 1 per acre. The position in these villages deteriorated particularly during the famines of the 'nineties. As a result, a reduction of revenue was ordered by the Government in 1902.

Regular settlement of all the *ryotwari* villages of the District was undertaken between 1901 and 1904.

The following Table gives details of this Settlement.—

Name of Tahsil	Number of Villages	Total Area (Sq. Miles)	Culturable Area (Sq Miles)	Survey Nos.	Assessment	Average Acreage Rate	Date of Expiry of the Current Settlement
					Rs.*	Re.a.p.	
Khandwa	20	31	25	1,320	4,685	0-4-7	30th June, 1912.
Burhanpur	54	147	121	5,149	30,871	0-6-5	30th June, 1913.
Harsud	162	365	289	12,684	59,993	0-5-0	30th June, 1911.
Total	236	543	435	19,153	95,549	0-5-6	

It may be of interest to note that at the time of Forsyth's Settlement, the area settled on *ryotwari* principles was only 101 sq. miles. In 1905-06 the area occupied for cultivation in *ryotwari* villages was 3,48,000 acres and the cultivated area 1,69,000 acres.

At the Settlement of 1911-14, the attestation of the *ryotwari* villages was made on exactly the same lines as the *malguzari* area. The soil classification and the soil factors were the same for both. Where the *ryotwari* villages were scattered they were included in the nearest *malguzari* group but where they constituted a fairly solid block, they were formed into groups of their own. The results of this Settlement have been indicated earlier.

The whole of the ryot's payment was taken as the Government revenue subject to a draw-back of two or three annas, and in a few cases, four annas in the rupee to the Patel for the trouble of collection. The Patel was not responsible for the default of the ryots. A remission of revenue for 1½ to 2 years was allowed on land newly broken up from waste. This is locally known as *pagras*. Local rates and a cess for the Kotwar at a rate not exceeding one anna in a rupee were payable by the ryots in addition to the revenue.

During the 'forties an experiment of conferring *ryot malik* rights on payment of a lump sum of 20 times the land revenue was introduced in the Khandwa Tahsil and during 1944-45 to 1946-47 such rights were conferred in respect of 8,616 acres of land, and an amount of Rs. 73,135 was received as premium.[1]

These operations were continued in later years too.

From January, 1951, the system of conferring *ryot-malik* rights was extended to the other two tahsils also.

The Table below gives details of the *ryotwari* area in the District at the Settlement of 1911-14 and in 1953:[2]

(In acres)

Period	No. of Survey Numbers	Already Occupied	Old Fallow	Total	Available for Occupation	*Minhari*
			Harsud Tahsil			
1911-14	12,199	1,20,948	59,866	1,80,814	18,678	54,120
1953	22,953	1,54,969	46,565	2,01,534	1,760	50,457
			Khandwa Tahsil			
1911-14	4,310	48,598	14,560	63,158	12,051	25,349
1953	6,235	59,889	14,510	74,399	2,286	23,883
			Burhanpur Tahsil			
1911-14	6,484	59,906	35,186	95,092	18,851	50,627
1953	7,775	94,587	24,511	1,19,098	800	44,661
			Total			
1911-14	22,993	2,29,452	1,09,612	3,39,064	49,580,	1,30,096
1953	36,963	3,09,445	85,586	3,95,031	4,846	1,19,001

The total occupied area in *ryotwari* Settlement was 4,05, 820 acres at the close of the year 1958-59, tahsil-wise distribution of which was as set forth below :

Tahsil	Acres
Khandwa	76,665
Burhanpur	1,23,151
Harsud	2,06,004

Land Revenue and Special Cesses

The Table below shows the annual demand and collection of land revenue in the District during the period from 1948-49 to 1961-62.—

(In Rs.)

Year	Demand	Collection
1948-49	8,29,459	6,50,538
1949-50	7,96,153	7,19,187

(Contd.....)

1. C.P. Land Revenue Administration Report, 1946-47, p. 6.
2. Forecast Report on Resettlement of the Nimar District, 1953, pp. 71-72.

(In Rs.)

Year	Demand	Collection
1950-51	8,70,076	8,04,732
1951-52	10,05,401	9,70,238
1952-53	10,02,075	6,84,048
1953-54	10,01,524	9,49,303
1954-55	10,03,571	9,48,591
1955-56	10,06,665	8,48,747
1956-57	10,07,674	9,75,697
1957-58	10,08,273	9,96,535
1958-59	10,11,002	10,06,007
1959-60	10,12,273	10,00,733
1960-61	10,13,737	9,96,663
1961-62	10,07,986	9,61,157

The increase in the demand from 1951-52 onwards is on account of the abolition of the *malguzari* system.

Cesses

Some cesses on land revenue have been levied by the Government from time to time. Until the Settlement of 1895-1899 the following cesses were payable in the District and were calculated on the land revenue at the rates shown against them.—

(a) Cesses for roads, schools and dak — 4½ per cent
(b) Additional rate — — 2 per cent

The contribution on account of Patwaris was a certain fixed sum plus the value of Patwaris' service land.

After revision of the Settlement of 1895-1899, the road, school, and dak cesses were increased to 5½ per cent, the additional rate remained unchanged at 2 per cent, and a new impost Patwari cess at the rate of 6 per cent was introduced. They together made up 13½ per cent. These cesses were calculated on the *malguzari* revenue alone. It may be noted that the *malik-makbuzas* and tenants were also paying Patwari cess at rates equivalent to a rate of 1 anna 10 pies in the Khandwa Tahsil and 1 anna 2 pies in the Burhanpur Tahsil. At the Settlement of 1895-1899 it was decided that this cess should be levied at the rate of 1 anna to a rupee of rental in both these tahsils from *malik-makbuzas* and tenants. The Patwaris collected this cess direct from the village. From 1906-07 the Patwaris started getting a fixed pay in cash from the treasury and in consequence the Patwari cess was abolished By this time the additional rate had also been abolished, so that the *malguzars* and *malik-makbuzas* were required to pay cess at a consolidated rate of only 5½ per cent on the revenue.

The position regarding cesses underwent a change in 1920 when under the Central Provinces. Local Self-Government Act, 1920 (IV of 1920) only a cess for maintenance of schools, roads, and general purposes was levied in het

District. This was calculated at 6¼ per cent on the land revenue and its proceeds were paid to the District Council, East Nimar. An additional cess at the rate of 4¼⅛ per cent was also imposed by the District Council under this Act from the 1st October, 1928.

Another change took place in 1946 when a Panchayat cess was introduced under the Central Provinces & Berar Panchayats Act, 1946 (I of 1947). The cess was payable at the rate of 6 pies per rupee on land revenue and rentals of proprietors and tenants, respectively, (other than sub-tenants) in respect of lands held by them in the Gram Panchayat area and the proceeds were paid to the Gram Panchayat concerned. When the District Councils were replaced by Janapada Sabhas in 1948, a Janapada cess was imposed under the Central Provinces and Berar Local Government Act, 1948 (XXXVIII of 1948). This was calculated at 18 pies per rupee until 1953-54 when it was raised to 30 pies per rupee. The proceeds from this cess were payable to the Janapada Sabha concerned.

The Panchayat and the Janapada cessess are still levied in the District. It may, however, be stated that under the Madhya Pradesh Panchayats Act of 1960, a cess at the rate of 10 paise per rupee is levied only at the Panchayat level.

The Table below shows the annual demand and collection of cesses in the District during the period 1948-49 to 1961-62.—

(In Rs.)

Year	Demand	Collection
1948-49	79,305	71,286
1949-50	1,31,700	1,23,402
1950-51	1,51,927	1,31,245
1951-52	1,38,968	1,33,154
1952-53	1,39,220	1,28,440
1953-54	1,38,380	1,31,449
1954-55	1,38,561	1,30,838
1955-56	1,53,122	1,30,895
1956-57	1,54,521	1,48,908
1957-58	1,53,934	1,52,441
1958-59	1,54,572	1,53,522
1959-60	1,56,693	1,53,279
1960-61	1,55,021	1,58,734
1961-62	1,54,590	1,48,892

RELATIONS BETWEEN LANDLORDS AND TENANTS

Little account is available about the position of cultivators in the District during the Mughal rule except that Akbar's revenue code repeatedly enjoined their protection and encouragement. The position of the cultivators under the

Marathas is described by Captain Forsyth, who conducted the Settlement of 1868-69, in the following words[1].—

"There was no permanent transfer of the natural rights of the cultivator to a landlord class, the State moderating its demand from the latter, while allowing them to treat the ryot as they pleased."

The attitude of the early British administration in Nimar was in line with the ideas prevalent at the time as to the admissibility and necessity of Government interference in the relation of the Patel with the cultivator. It has already been stated that inspite of the villages being leased out the first quinquennial settlement of the District was virtually a *ryotwari* one and that at the later settlements the ryots were fully protected against ouster or enhancement by the farmers.

When proprietary rights were conferred upon the *malguzars* in the former Central Provinces, it became necessary in recording the incidents of these rights at settlement to define the rights and liabilities of the tenancy. The grant of proprietary right, as carried out in the Settlement of the 1860's in the Province, was by no means an unconditional one and measures were undertaken to protect the interest of both the Government and the cultivators. In the absence of a prior adverse right, the old cultivators, *kadim kashtkars*, who had been in uninterrupted possession of their holdings for 12 years were to be given full proprietary rights, with other proprietary privileges in their holdings. This is the class which came to be known as *malik makbuzas*. As regards the non-proprietary cultivators, they were allowed to retain their rights which were commonly regarded as pertaining to them. In the matter of fixation of their rents, they were allowed to remain on the same footing as they occupied then. It was declared to be permissible to lower the rate of rent of such a tenant and to declare the rent so fixed as the highest which could be demanded from him so long as the circumstances of the holding remained the same; but this was to be done in extreme circumstances where the hereditary cultivators were ground down by extortionate demands. On the other hand these rents were liable to be enhanced on suit in the regular revenue court. Tenants, who did not fulfil either of these descriptions were declared tenants-at-will, the forerunners of the "ordinary tenant" of a later date and their rents left to be adjusted between the landlord and tenant; the landlord had recognized authority for demanding as high a rent as he could obtain and of ousting the cultivator at the close of the year, if he could obtain better terms from somebody else.

In the meanwhile, the Bengal Rent Act of 1859 (X of 1959) which was extended to the Central Provinces on the 2nd March, 1864, laid down that every ryot who had cultivated or held land for 12 years had a right of occupancy. A distinction, however, arose between these tenants who were entitled to occupancy rights merely on the ground of 12 years' continuous possession and those who

1. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69 p. 84.

possessed something beyond this minimum qualification. The tenants belonging to the former category were classed as occupancy tenants while those in the latter category were known as absolute occupancy. Captain Forsyth, while settling the District in 1868-69 divided the ryots into.—

(a) an exceptionally numerous body of *malik makbuzas* (Plot-holders) holding nearly one-half the occupied area,

(b) an insignificant class of absolute occupancy tenants,

(c) a moderate body of occupancy tenants, and

(d) a substantial body of ordinary tenants, holding one-quarter of the occupied area.

But before Captain Forsyth's Settlement came into force, doubts had arisen whether the necessity for protecting the cultivating class had been sufficiently attended to in the Nimar District and this question was the subject-matter of a protracted correspondence between the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces and the Government of India during the period from 1868 to 1875. The Chief Commissioner called attention to the manner in which the rights of proprietors and cultivators were being conceded and complained that despite the orders regarding the grant of proprietary rights to cultivators, the former were having it all their own way. He pressed for a greater consideration of the claims of the old cultivator class, so that while the proprietor gained something which had not existed before, the old cultivators should not lose that which they had always possessed. The Government of India in their orders dated the 21st June, 1875, agreed that the non-proprietary old cultivator should hold on a fixed rent for each period of settlement, so that but for the absence of a free right of transferability, the absolute occupancy tenant's status approximated to that of the *malik makbuza* and ordered that all tenants should have an occupancy right.

An entry to this effect was made in the settlement records when the Settlement came into force in 1875. The normal right of every tenant in Nimar to occupancy right was later confirmed in the Central Provinces Tenancy Act (IX of 1883) and in the revised Tenancy Act (XI of 1898). The "ordinary" class of tenants was consequently confined to a few individuals who contracted themselves out of their occupancy right. It will thus be seen that in Nimar (and Chanda) the position of tenants as a whole was put on a different footing from the rest of the Province and the status of the whole class of cultivators except those on privileged lands was protected. The result was that all the land in the District was held by tenants who were described either as absolute or as occupancy tenants.

Between Captain Forsyth's Settlement and the re-settlement of 1895-1899 the area of *malik makbuza* land changed but little, while the tenancy land, almost all of which was held in occupancy right, increased, so that at the

time of re-settlement the occupied area apportioned in different classes of tenure and percentage was: *sir* (8 per cent), *khudkasht* (2), *malik makbuza* land (31), revenue-free grants (2), absolute occupancy land (1), occupancy land (52), ordinary land (1), and privileged tenancy (3).—

When the District was resettled in 1911-14, the area held in absolute occupancy right continued to be small. The bulk of the tenants were still occupancy tenants and the only ordinary tenants were tenants of *sir* land or tenants who held under a written lease in which it was expressly agreed that a right of occupancy in the land shall not be acquired or that the tenant shall quit the land at the termination of the lease. The onus of proving that a tenant was entitled only to the ordinary right lay on the landlord and a tenant was, therefore, recorded as occupancy, till this onus was removed. A somewhat large decrease in the ordinary area at this Settlement was due to the transfer of a considerable number of villages from the Hoshangabad District to form Harsud Tahsil in 1896. The villages thus transferred became a portion of the Nimar District on the 1st October, 1896, and as under the Central Provinces Tenancy Act of 1898 every person (with certain exceptions) who on the 21st October, 1898, was a tenant of land in Nimar, became an occupancy tenant of that land, and every ordinary tenant in Harsud Tahsil accordingly became an occupancy tenant of that land. The necessary changes in the records to this effect were, however, made only at the Settlement of 1911-14.

The effect of the system of fair rents, as already described, had been to put the landlord into the position of a mere rent charger. The landlord had no economic interest in the improvement of the soil except as regards his home-farm and had, therefore, no incentive to assist with his capital. The result was that there was an entire absence of a spirit of co-operation between owner and tenant, so necessary for agricultural progress Moreover, as already pointed out, the majority of the landlords in the District were small men hardly distinguishable from the general body of tenants and proprietors of this type were neither strong enough to harm their tenantry nor big enough to benefit them. This position led the Settlement Officer (of 1911-14 Settlement) to remark that, "The Nimar cultivators are so well protected that unless they are absolutely incapable of looking after their own interests; they cannot be much injured by their landlords".[1] The landlord tenant relationship was summed up by him in the following words:[2]

"In conclusion it may be said that the general relation between landlords and tenants is one of indifference and independence and the lambardar owing to the sub-division of proprietary right and the preponderance of *malik-makbuzas* has often less influence than the patel of a ryotwari village."

After the Settlement of 1911-14, action was also taken to protect the aboriginals of the District from the rapacity of the money-lending classes.

1. Ibid, 1911-14, p. 32.
2. Ibid, p. 32.

With this end in view the Central Provinces Land Alienation Act of 1916, (II of 1916), which had been enacted to place restriction on the transfer of agricultural land held in proprietary rights from aboriginal to non-aboriginal classes, was made applicable in 1918 to the Korkus of the whole District. The provisions of the Act proved beneficial to the poor and guileless Korku proprietors. The Act is still in force in the District.

The Tenancy Act of 1898 remained in force until 1920 when the tenancy law was completely re-enacted, the new Act being known as the Central Provinces Tenancy Act (I of 1920). An important change under this Act was in respect of the class of ordinary tenants which was abolished and all such tenants converted into occupancy tenants. No important change took place in the position of the tenant until the introduction of Provincial Autonomy (1937-1938) when the Congress Ministry undertook a series of measures to protect the tenants. To start with, a 12½ per cent reduction of rents was given in respect of small holdings during 1937-38, which resulted in a decrease in the land revenue demand of the District. This was followed by the appointment in August, 1938, of a Committee known as the Revenue Committee for, "overhauling the tenancy and land revenue systems in the Central Provinces on well considered and comprehensive lines". On the recommendations of this Committee, the Tenancy Act underwent many amendments in 1939-1940, under one of which the Government was empowered to declare absolute occupancy tenants and occupancy tenants as *malik makbuzas* on payment to the landlord of an amount equal to 10 and 12½ times the rent, respectively, of the holding. By another amendment, sub-tenants of *malik makbuzas* and tenants were also recorded as occupancy tenants if the lands were habitually sub-let. Further, if *sir* or *khud-kasht* lands were leased as one holding on or after the 1st November, 1939, the lessee could acquire the same right in *sir* land as he would in the *khud-kasht* land and the *sir* right in such land was extinguished.

The assumption of office by the Congress Ministry again in 1946 accelerated the pace of land reforms in the State. Many measures were initiated in this direction but the most important among them was the abolition of intermediaries between the State and the actual tiller of the soil. While the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Bill, passed by the Vidhan Sabha in April, 1950, was awaiting the assent of the President, an interim legislative measure known as the Madhya Pradesh Agricultural Raiyats and Tenants (Acquisition of Privileges) Act, 1950 (XVIII of 1950), was enacted in the same year for facilitating the abolition of proprietary rights, for the protection of tenants from ejectment, etc. Under this Act, the right of plot-proprietorship (*malik makbuza*) could be conferred upon tenants on payment of a prescribed premium. The Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950 (I of 1951) which came into force from the 31st March, 1951, also made a similar provision for the conferment of *malik makbuza* rights. Tenants numbering 2,392 in the District availed themselves of this concession and between 1950-51 and 1961-62 an amount of Rs. 1,12,842 was paid by them as premia.

Under a notification issued under the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, all proprietary rights in estates and *mahals* vested in the State Government on 31st March, 1951. This measure constitutes an important land-mark in the history of land reforms, since under this Act the *malguzari* system was abolished throughout the State of Madhya Pradesh. From this time, barring home-farm land, home-stead, private wells and tanks and occupied land held by proprietors and tenants, all rights and title and interests of the proprietor vested in the State Government, the total area vesting in the East Nimar District being 8,64,439.88 acres. The proprietors were, however, allowed to retain their home-farm lands in *malik makbuza* rights. In the beginning the Patwari took charge of the land, etc., vested in the State on behalf of the Deputy Commissioner (now Collector) but later Patels were appointed through election for this purpose. The relations between the Patels and cultivators are generally cordial in the District.

For the loss of proprietary rights, the proprietors were entitled to a compensation in accordance with prescribed scales. Further, petty proprietors were entitled to a rehabilitation grant, which was payable immediately and the amount of debts or liabilities due by the outgoing proprietors, except the excluded debts were to be scaled down by the Claims Officer to be appointed under the Act. A special department called the "Land Reforms Department" was constituted in the State for implementing the main provisions of the Act. Under the set-up of this Department, a Deputy Commissioner of Land Reforms was appointed in the District in February, 1951, with Compensation-cum-Claims Officers and other staff. An amount of Rs. 3,75,896 was paid as compensation to the ex-proprietors between 1952-53 and 1959-60.

The staff of the Land Reforms Department had to contend with another problem. Before the enforcement of the Act, the ex-proprietors had made many transfers of waste land. Under the Act such transfers after the 16th March, 1950, were to be deemed void and all cases of transfer which were made after this date were registered in the Court of the Deputy Commissioner of Land Reforms for validation of the transfers. There were 65 such cases in the Burhanpur Tahsil, out of which 27 were validated and the remaining 38 rejected.

The Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, besides abolishing the *malguzari* system also aimed at giving greater security and additional rights to the tenants. For instance, the Act allowed them to hold lands in their previous rights as tenants of the State and to pay rent to Government as payable to the ex-proprietors, thus bringing them in direct relationship with the Government. As already stated, the tenants were also given facilities under this Act to acquire plot-proprietary rights in the lands held by them on payment of a nominal premium. The position in former *malguzari* villages after the abolition of the *malguzari* system thus was that all cultivators, other than sub-tenants, became the tenants of the State and the ex-proprietors became *malik-makbuzas* of the land under their personal cultivation.

The abolition of the *malguzari* system was followed by the simplification of land tenures. With this end in view and for consolidating all land laws of the State, the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, 1954 (II of 1955) was enacted and brought into force from the 1st October, 1955. Under this Code, all *malik makbuza* and absolute occupancy tenants were made *bhumiswami*, i.e., full proprietors of land while the occupancy tenants were given *bhumidhari* right which was almost equivalent to a proprietary right except that a *bhumidhari* could not mortgage his interest in the land nor could such interest be attached or sold in execution of any decree or order. But a *bhumidhari* had the option to acquire *bhumiswami* rights by paying three times the land revenue to the State Government.

As regards sub-tenants under the Tenancy Act of 1920, any person who habitually sub-lets his land for seven years in a consecutive period of ten years ran the risk of having the last sub-tenant created as an occupancy tenant under him and such an occupancy tenant was given the right to acquire the rights of his landlord on payment of 12½ times the rent. The Land Revenue Code modified the meaning of 'habitual sub-letting' by substituting a lesser period of three years in any period of five years. An occupancy tenant of a *bhumiswami* and a *bhumidhari* could acquire ownership right on payment of premium at ten and seven times the rent, respectively.

The Land Revenue Code of 1954 remained in force until the 2nd October, 1959, when it was replaced by the Land Revenue Code, 1959 (No. 20 of 1959). During the time the Code of 1954 was in force, the public in the District expressed satisfaction in respect of its provisions relating to the rights of cultivators in trees in their holdings, allotment of agricultural lands to landless persons, allotment of house sites in *abadi* areas, etc. In particular, some cultivators having *bhumiswami* rights took advantage of the provision relating to the cutting of useful trees in their holdings.[1]

The Code of 1959 incorporates all the important features of land reforms, such as, uniformity of tenures, protection of tenants against arbitrary ejectment, rack-renting and conferring *bhumiswami* rights on them. It eliminates the distinction between the *malguzari* and *ryotwari* systems. Further, the Code provides for only one class of tenure holders of lands from the State to be known as *bhumiswami*. A *bhumiswami* shall have rights of transfer subject only to one restriction that such transfer does not either create a holding above a prescribed limit or an uneconomic holding below ten acres. Subject to certain restrictions, he will have full rights over all kinds of trees in his holdings. A *bhumiswami* has also a right to mortgage his land both by simple or usufructuary mortgage. Thus the Code aims at eliminating tenancy and bringing into existence peasant proprietorship based on owner-cultivation.

1. East Nimar Land Revenue Administration Report, 1958-59, p. 82.

The Code also protects the rights of sub-tenants, who are given the status of occupancy tenants. An occupancy tenant can be conferred *bhumiswami* rights on his paying 15 times the land revenue in five equal instalments but sufficient advantage has not been taken of this provision in the East Nimar District. This is because the sub-tenants are not yet bold enough to come forward for securing *bhumiswami* rights due to their conventional relations with the *bhumiswamis*. To protect the existing occupancy tenants of *bhumiswamis* from being rack-rented, it has been laid down that the maximum rent payable by an occupancy tenant shall not exceed four times the land revenue in the case of irrigated land, three times the land revenue in the case of land under *bandhas* and two times the land revenue in other cases. No sub-letting or leasing of land is now permitted except in very emergent cases once in three years or by certain classes of persons such as widows, unmarried women, minors. etc.

The Table given in Appendix A shows the land held by different classes of tenure-holders in the District.

It will be seen from this Table that the tendency of sub-letting is recently on an increase in the District. This is mainly due to the rise in partition of holdings on account of the contemplated ceiling on holdings.

Ceiling on Holdings

Apart from the measures of land reforms indicated above, the question of fixing a ceiling on the ownership of land holdings was also considered in the former Madhya Pradesh. The Government appointed in 1954 a Committee (known as the Land Reforms Committee) which examined the matter at great length and submitted a report in 1955. The Committee recommended the imposition of a ceiling on the existing possession of land holdings as well as on future acquisitions. But before any action could be taken on these recommendations. the re-organization of States took place in the Country.

The question was again taken up in the re-organised State of Madhya Pradesh and as a result a special law, called the Madhya Pradesh Ceiling on Agricultural Holdings Act, 1960 (No. 20 of 1960) has been enacted and brought into force with effect from the 15th November, 1961 According to this Act, apart from inherited land no person shall acquire more than 25 standard acres per family consisting of husband and wife. Additional five standard acres have been allowed for dependents up to five, to the maximum of 25 standard acres. The ceiling is thus limited, depending on the number of dependents, to 50 standard acres. Necessary action under this Act is in progress in the District It may be of interest to note here that a number of land-holders owning considerably large land-holdings have already disposed of the anticipated excess area before the Act came into force. However, the transactions made after the 15th September, 1959, which may be repugnant to the provisions of the Act can be declared void.

Nistar and Grazing Rights

Until the abolition of the *malguzari* system the *nistar* and grazing rights were regulated by the *malguzars* in accordance with the customs and rules recorded in the village administration paper (called the *wajib-ul-arz*), which was revised at every settlement. At the time of Captain Forsyth's Settlement, the *wajib-ul-arz* was divided into two sections, one the *wajib-ul-arz aam* which contained such conditions as were common to all villages in the District. The other section, which was known as *wajib-ul-arz khas* dealt with conditions peculiar to a particular village. At this Settlement it was laid down that agricultural residents of a village would be allowed to graze their cattle on the waste land of that village and to take what wood and grass they required for their own use free of duty or other charge. Other persons could also be granted permission to cut wood and grass on certain terms. Proprietary ryots (*malik-makbuzas*) also had a right to graze their cattle on all waste lands not already in the occupation of others.

When the District was re-settled in 1895-1899, the revised *wajib-ul-arz* contained an important clause regarding "Management of the Village Forest, Waste and Grazing-Grounds". This clause *inter alia* stated.—

"The village waste and its produce are the property of the malguzar..... Agriculturists of the village who are resident will be permitted to exercise, free of charge or hindrance, their rights of grazing agricultural cattle on the waste, of gathering grass, leaves, roots and thorns; and cutting wood required for agricultural purposes and fuel; and (with the permission of the Deputy Commissioner and when warranted by custom, of cutting wood required for house construction or repair. In the absence of any special agreement to the contrary, agriculturists of the village, who are non-resident, have no right to cut wood (other than brushwood) for fuel, agricultural purposes or house construction, but they can exercise the other rights of *nistar* specified above free of charge. Other persons who use the produce of the village waste or forest shall do so on such terms as may be agreed upon between them and the malguzar."

Following the transfer of some villages from the Hoshangabad District in 1896, two forms of *wajib-ul-arz* came in force in the District, one for the old Nimar District and the other for the transferred portion. By the time the resettlement of 1911-14 took place, a considerable degree of uniformity in village customs had been created in the two portions of the District with the result that a single model *wajib-ul-arz* was prepared for the District as a whole.

The *wajib-ul-arz* of this Settlement laid down that every resident agriculturist and agricultural labourer was entitled to graze his cattle in the waste land free of charge on the following scale.—

Agriculturist.—4 bullocks and 4 cows } per plough and calves below one year.

For half a plough—as above,—the scale shall be halved.

Agricultural labourer—2 cows and calves below one year.

The *malguzar* was, however, entitled to charge dues for any number in excess of this scale. Further every resident agriculturist and agricultural labourer was entitled to gather grass, leaves, roots and thorns, to cut wood for agricultural purposes and fuel for domestic use, free of charge from the village waste land provided the articles were required for *bona fide* use and not for sale. Non-resident agriculturists were also entitled to graze their cattle at the same scale as residents, but were entitled to no other waste produce than grass, leaves, roots and thorns.

In spite of these provisions, some disputes were reported between the landlords and tenants regarding grazing and *nistar* rights. This feature became pronounced since the late 'thirties particularly in Khandwa Tahsil where there were many proprietors and party factions. In the period following the attainment of Independence, particularly when the abolition of the *malguzari* system was under contemplation, the *malguzars* again tried to deny *nistar* rights to the people. This eventually led to the enactment of the Central Provinces and Berar Grazing and Nistar Act, 1948 (XXII of 1948) which provided for free grazing of the cattle of agriculturists and a prescribed number of cattle of non-agriculturists in the grazing area of all villages.

After the abolition of the *malguzari* system, the administration of *nistar* also devolved on the State Government. In order to settle the grazing and *nistar* problems on systematic lines, the Government appointed a special staff of Nistar Officers in each tahsil (of the rank of a Deputy Collector) who after settling disputed problems of *nistar* and grazing rights prepared a *Nistar Patrak* and *wajib-ul-arz* for each village. These operations were completed in the District by about 1956. In addition to the rights of *nistar* prescribed in the *Nistar Patrak*, the Government in the same year also introduced a scheme for the administration of *nistar*, supply of timber and fuel, etc., to the villagers for *nistar* purposes. Under this scheme forest depots were opened at a number of places in the District at which *nistar* materials were made available to the villagers from Government Reserved forests, *ex-malguzari* forests and *ryotwari* forests on permits issued by the Gram and Nyaya Panchayats and Nistar Panchayats. Pamphlets showing the details of the availability of timber and other *nistar* materials at each depot were distributed in all the villages of the District. Further, since the grazing land in *ex-malguzari* villages was insufficient for grazing purposes, the grazing area was extended wherever possible. During 1958-59, 3,57,807 acres under forests and pasture land were set apart in the District for grazing purposes Even this area was found inadequate for the growing livestock population of the District and, therefore, some cattle were also sent to the Government Reserved forest on passes issued by the Forest Department. Except for a few complaints such as inadequacy of materials at

the depots, long distance between the depots and villages served by them and the like, the scheme is progressing satisfactorily.

Bhoodan

The *Bhoodan Yagna* (land gift) Movement initiated in the Country in 1951 by Acharya Vinoba Bhave to solve the problem of landless labourers had its impact on the East Nimar District as on the rest of the Country. To facilitate the activities in connection with this movement in the State, the Government of Madhya Pradesh enacted the Bhoodan Yagna Act, 1953 (No. XV of 1953), under which a Bhoodan Yagna Board was constituted with headquarters at Nagpur. The main duty of this Board was to administer all lands vested in it for the benefit of the *Bhoodan Yagna*. It was empowered to constitute Tahsil Committees which distributed the *bhoodan* lands to landless persons, capable of cultivating them personally. In the reorganized State of Madhya Pradesh, this Board functions for the Mahakoshal region only and has its headquarters at Narsimhapur. It receives an annual grant from the Government. Till the end of 1961-62, 1,879.93 acres of land had been donated in the District as *bhoodan*, out of which 1,774.84 acres were distributed to landless labourers, Harijans and Adivasis. This distribution was done by Mandal Bhoodan Committees, which are still functioning in the District.

OTHER SOURCES OF REVENUE

The important items of Central revenues are Union Excise Duties, Income Tax and Estate Duty. Some particulars about these items, as far as they concern the East Nimar District, are given below.—

Union Excise Duties

The main excisable commodities in the District are paper, cloth, tobacco, vegetable non-essential oils, art silk, power-looms, package tea, etc. A Superintendent of Central Excise is posted at Khandwa for the collection of these duties in the District. The annual revenue from each of these commodities during the period from 1957-58 to 1964-65 is given in Appendix A.

Income Tax & Estate Duty

The Indian Income Tax Act is administered in the District by the staff of the Income Tax Office, Khandwa. The receipts from Income Tax during the years 1957-58 to 1964-65 are given below.—

Year	Amount (Rs.)
1957-58	5,81,000
1958-59	5,43,349
1959-60	6,73,374
1960-61	7,72,545
1961-62	7,52,000

(Contd......)

Year	Amount (Rs.)
1962-63	10,01,000
1963-64	17,26,000
1964-65	50,25,000

Some important sources of State revenues, not already covered, are Forests, Sales Tax, Stamps, Registration and Taxes on Motor Vehicles. A brief account of these items of taxation and the income from them is given below.—

Forests

As mentioned earlier the percentage of forest area to the total geographical area of the District is 49 per cent. The revenue from forests is derived from timber and other produce removed by Government and consumers/purchasers and from other miscellaneous sources like cattle grazing, etc. The annual income from the forests in the District for the last few years is given below.—

Year	Amount (Rs.)
1947-48	7,32,649
1957-58	17,34,178
1958-59	20,61,057
1959-60	24,92,190
1960-61	38,18,255
1961-62	17,37,768

Sales Tax

The Madhya Pradesh General Sales Tax Act, the Central Sales Tax Act and the Motor Spirit and Lubricants Taxation Act are administered in the District by the staff of the East Nimar Sales Tax Circle, Khandwa. The annual receipts under these Acts for a few years are given in the Table below.—

(In Rs.)

Year	State Sales Tax	Central Sales Tax	Motor Spirit and Lubricants Tax	Total
1956-57	9,72,696	..	..	9,72,696
1957-58	11 87,134	2,26,552	.	14,13,686
1958-59	9,79,963	6,89,991	.	16,69,954
1959-60	14,74,853	7,60,570	1,72,331	24,07,755
1960-61	18,67,478	6,33,955	2,30,387	27,09,820
1961-62	20,11,004	7,87,745	1,06,679	29,05,428
1962-63	22,04,437	7,02,112	78,042	29,84,591
1963-64	23,70,952	12,30,700	61,923	36,63,575
1964-65	29,05,931	17,67,197	41,965	47,14,293

Stamps

The annual receipts from this item in the District from 1955-56 to 1961-62 are shown below.—

(In Rs.)

Year	Stamps			Total
	Court Fee	General	Revenue	
1955-56	1,82,946	1,57,807	19,964	3,60,717
1956-57	1,07,068	2,28,145	20,460	3,55,673
1957-58	5,06,758	5,12,655	39,591	10,49,004
1958-59	1,83,580	2,99,903	32,508	5,15,991
1959-60	1,71,092	2,15,534	40,108	4,26,734
1960-61	1,95,737	2,99,049	43,101	5,37,887
1961-62	1,99,728	2,56,312	43,498	4,99,538

Registration

The Table below shows the number of documents registered, along with the annual receipts under this item, from 1947-48 to 1964-65.—

Year	No. of Documents Registered	Receipts (Rs.)
1947-48	7,904	68,510
1957-58	10,261	1,06,445
1958-59	10,851	1,15,708
1959-60	7,482	78,990
1960-61	8,478	1,00,937
1961-62	7,668	88,042
1962-63	7,948	84,152
1963-64	9,864	1,29,423
1964-65	10,325	1,29,849

Motor Vehicles

Taxes realised on motor vehicles during the years 1957-58 to 1962-63 are set forth below.—

Year	Amount (Rs.)
1957-58	2,85,788
1958-59	2,50,998
1959-60	2,64,811
1960-61	2,85,858
1961-62	3,39,581
1962-63	3,46,051

Entertainment

Entertainment Tax Act is administered by the Excise Department in the District. The revenue realized under this Act in recent years is revealed in the following Table.—

Year	Revenue (Rs.)
1961-62	3,01,781
1962-63	3,36,769
1963-64	4,24,012
1964-65	5,10,713
1965-66	5,59,754

CHAPTER XII

LAW AND ORDER AND JUSTICE

It may reasonably be expected that the powers that held sway over East Nimar might have established the same legal and judicial institutions here also as prevailed in other parts of their kingdom. Coming to the British period, and to quote Captain P. T. French, Political Assistant in Nimar during 1945-47, "In the early years of our rule there were here, with a political agent, two assistants; one reduction after another followed until one man (on reduced salary too) was expected to conduct all the revenue, police, and magisterial duties of a tract of country extending over 3,000 square miles and containing 1,523 villages, besides the political duties of Holkar's district on the Nurbudda, the control over a jail mainly filled with convicts from Malva, and general treasury...... In fact, he was expected to do all the duties of many, and that only was done which involved his public character in the various capacities of judge, policeman, collector and accountant."[1] In short, Political Assistant was the only Executive Officer responsible for the entire administration of the District. When Captain P.T. French was placed in charge of the District in 1845 he instituted regular pargana monthly reports of civil and criminal cases and disposed of petitions, etc, and thereby kept supervision over the Local Officers, *Kamavisdars*.

The mode of administering justice in civil matters was very simple. Most of the civil cases, which the local official could not settle, were tried on the spot, where all the inhabitants of the villages used to assemble. Many such cases were settled in a few hours by a Panchayat and others *viva voce*.[2] As in other work so in the work of administering justice too, the Executive Officer was assisted by the Deputy Collector, whose post was created in 1846, and an Assistant Superintendent. This mode of delivering civil justice without civil courts probably offered few attractions to the people for litigations.

As regards the condition of criminal offences, the District, it is stated, was quite free and happy. "Of the state of crime in Nimar, observed Captain P. T. French, I can speak most favourably, and having been long in Khandesh and Deccan as Magistrate, I speak on some information. In fact, I have never known a country so free from crime of every description, as this is."[3]

1. Report on the Province of Nimar, 1856, p. 69.
2. Ibid, p. 5.
3. Ibid, p. 73.

As has been already stated, from the time of cession of Nimar (A.D. 1818) upto 1st May 1864 A.D., when this District was transferred to the administration of Central Provinces, it was managed under the Resident and the Governor-General's Agent at Indore. It was only after 1864, that measures were taken for establishing a system of law and order as was introduced in other districts of Central Provinces. Prior to that, in addition to the laws generally applied to the rest of British India, the statute of Limitation Act, 1859, Stamp Act, 1862 and the Contract Laws 1859 and 1860 were formally extended to this District.[1]

With the incorporation of Nimar Agency in the Central Provinces from 1st May, 1864, the former civil establishment of the Agency underwent a change. Formerly, the civil establishment consisted of a Political Agent, three Deputy Collectors and a Munsiff. In the new set-up the post of Munsiff was abolished and the Political Agent and Deputy Collectors were redesignated as Deputy Commissioner and Extra-Assistant Commissioners, respectively. Parganas were grouped into sub-divisions each being placed in charge of a Tahsildar who also usually was vested with petty civil and criminal jurisdiction within his circle. Besides these courts of Tahsildars, there were also courts of Extra-Assistant Commissioners or Assistant Commissioners, and Deputy Commissioner. All these courts were under the appellate jurisdiction of the Court of the sessions presided over by the Commissioner of Nerbudda Division, the headquarters of which was then temporarily fixed at Betul later to be permanently kept at Hoshangabad.[2]

There was also one Court of Small Causes at Asirgarh Cantonment established under Act XI of 1865. The Judge of Small Causes Court was also exercising magisterial powers in criminal cases. The court of the Judicial Commissioner was the Chief Appellate Court and, on the Civil side, heard special appeals on orders passed on appeal by Deputy Commissioners or Commissioner.

Thus, there were eight grades of courts presided over by Tahsildars (two grades), Assistant Commissioners (three grades), Deputy Commissioner, Commissioner and Judicial Commissioner, besides the Small Causes Court at Asirgarh Cantonment.

The new Civil Procedure Code (Act X of 1877) came into operation in 1877, and it materially extended the Jurisdiction of Small Causes Courts. Naib-Tahsildars had jurisdiction in suits of money-value not exceeding Rs. 50. Jurisdiction of the Courts of Tahsildars was extended upto Rs. 300.

The general scheme of judicial reorganisation was taken up in 1884-85 and incorporated in the Central Provinces Courts Act (Act XVI of 1885) which became Law on 2nd October, 1885. In pursuance of this scheme a new Court presided over by a Munsiff was established to do the Civil work, at Khandwa.

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1. Report on the District of Nimar, 1864, p. 23.
2. Central Provinces Gazetteer, 1868, p. 339.

The Small Causes Court at Asirgarh was closed in July, 1889; Shortly before the close of the year 1891-92 relief was afforded to the Deputy Commissioner of the District by appointment of a trained Civil Judge. A Judicial Assistant to the Commissioner of Nerbudda Division was appointed on 1st January, 1892. This Division included Nimar also. The Judicial Assistant took over all the Civil work of the Commissioners. In this year a court of Honorary Judge otherwise called Honorary Extra-Assistant Commissioner, was established at Burhanpur. In the year 1894-95 one court of Assistant Commissioner was closed in the District. In the year 1896-97 one Tahsildar's Court was established at Harsud, the headquarters of the newly formed tahsil of the District.

In the year 1901, a scheme for separating the work of administering Civil Justice from Criminal, Judicial and Executive work was to some extent enforced. In 1904 the Central Provinces Civil Courts Act, (Act II of 1904) was passed. The District Judge was, in the new set-up, in charge of the Civil Courts in the District. He exercised only limited jurisdiction, superior jurisdiction being with Divisional and Sessions Judge at Hoshangabad.

Under this new scheme the District was assigned the Civil staff consisting of a District Judge and Sub-Judge. There were also two Munsiffs one each at Khandwa and Burhanpur. The Extra-Assistant Commissioner at headquarters was exercising powers of an additional Judge to the Subordinate Judge and was taking cognizance of suits under the Central Provinces and Berar Tenancy Act upto the value of Rs. 10,000. Munsiffs were taking up cases upto Rs. 500 in value. Besides, there was one Small Causes Court at Khandwa. In 1911-12 one Munsiff was temporarily posted at Harsud but the post was abolished in the succeeding year.

This Central Provinces Courts Act (I of 1917) came into effect from 14th May, 1917. Accordingly Civil Judiciary underwent further reorganisation. So the Courts of the Divisional Judges were abolished and the Central Provinces was divided into nine districts under District and Sessions Judges, Khandwa being the headquarters of one of them. The staff of the Civil Judicial Department at the district level after reorganisation consisted of the District Judge, the Subordinate Judge, the Judge of Small Causes Court and the Munsiffs.

The Court of the Judicial Commissioner was abolished on 9th January, 1936 and a chartered High Court was established for the whole of the Central Provinces and Berar with its seat at Nagpur In 1945 the designation of the Subordinate Judges was again revised as Civil Judges. In 1956 the powers of District Judges were enhanced and they were empowered to hear appeals against the decrees and orders of Civil Judges upto Rs. 10,000. The Tahsildars were invested with powers of Extra-Civil Judges for trying cases under section 106 of the Central Provinces and Berar Tenancy Act. The Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights (Estates, Mahals and Alienated Lands) Act of 1950 was enforced in 1951 and as a result of it, institution of all suits under Tenancy Act in the Courts of

Extra Civil Judges ceased to exist. Therefore, the office of Extra Civil Judges also ceased to exist forthwith.

The Madhya Pradesh Civil Courts Act of 1958 (19 of 1958) was put into effect from 1st January, 1959. Under this enactment the following Courts continued to function in this Civil District.

(i) District Judge Khandwa.—He has Jurisdiction to hear appeals against the decision of Civil Judges. He is also empowered to take up cases under other special Laws and Acts.

(ii) Additional District Judge, Khandwa.—He takes up suits valued over Rs. 10,000 and Small Causes Court work for Khandwa and Harsud tahsils upto Rs. 1,000 in value (excluding suits upto Rs. 100 triable by Nyaya Panchayat Courts).

(iii) Civil Judge (Class I) Khandwa.—He takes up suits upto Rs. 10,000 in value arising out of Burhanpur Tahsil and Small Causes suits upto the value of Rs. 500 arising from that Tahsil.

(iv) One Additional Judge began to be posted in this District for training. He is designated and classed as Civil Judge Class II. He can try suits upto the value of Rs. 5,000.

With effect from the 15th August, 1961 the State Government in exercise of the powers conferred by the Madhya Pradesh Civil Court Act, 1958 (No. 19 of 1958), divided the State of Madhya Pradesh into 21 civil districts comprising all the 43 revenue districts. Accordingly, East Nimar was constituted into a separate Civil District. A court of the District Judge was continued at Khandwa, the headquarters of the Civil and Revenue District. In addition to this, the District witnessed the establishment of the two Courts of Additional District Judges, both at Khandwa, two Courts of Civil Judges (class I) one each at Khandwa and Burhanpur, and three Courts of Civil Judges (Class II) one at Khandwa and two at Burhanpur. At the same time two Judicial Officers were posted as Judges of the Courts of District Judge, and Additional District Judge, Khandwa.[1]

Earlier it has been stated that though Nimar Agency was incorporated in the Central Provinces in 1864, the Code of Criminal Pocedure was not formally introduced but was acted upto as far as possible. The Code was extended to the District later. Classes of trials taken up by the Criminal Courts were (1) cases sent up by the police (2) cases taken up on complaint, (3) cases committed to the Sessions Court and (4) appeals to the Commissioner as Sessions Judge. These trials were conducted in the Courts of Honorary Magistrates, Sub-Magistrates, Magistrates with full powers, Extra-Assistant and Deputy Commissioners, Commissioner and Judicial Commissioner. Deputy Commissioner was the Magistrate of the District having power to hear appeals from the orders of all Sub-Magis-

1. Madhya Pradesh Gazette (Extra-Ordinary), dated August 14, 1961, pp. 1434-1445.

trates in his district. Besides, he had full powers having criminal, civil and revenue jurisdiction. While exercising powers described by Act XV of 1862 he tried all criminal cases triable by a Court of Sessions except such as required a capital sentence. He was empowered to award punishment upto seven years. He was allowed to take assistance from assessors. This Court ceased to exist under Act VIII of 1869 from 1st June, 1869. The number of Magistrates of all sorts in the District varied from time to time.

At Divisional headquarters there was a Court of Sessions presided over by the Commissioner. With the assistance of assessors, he could try all criminal cases committed to him by Magistrates and could award any punishment allowed by law. He was also empowered to hear all appeals from the orders of Magistrates with full powers. Then there was the Chief Court of the Province presided over by the Judicial Commissioner. His Court was not a Court of first instance but only the Chief Appellate Court in criminal and civil cases. The new Code of Criminal Procedure which came into force on 1st January, 1873 was an important stage in the history of criminal justice. This new Code introduced extension of powers of the Magistracy to a great extent. It was by this Code that the power of Magistrates of various grades were more accurately defined.

The year 1917 saw the reorganisation of the Judicial Department in the Central Provinces. The Central Provinces Courts Act (I of 1917) amended the existing Act on the subject. It was intended to adjust the law to the new conditions which then arose on the introduction of the new Judicial service. Scheme for organization under which the Courts of the Divisional Judges were abolished and the Province was divided into 11 Civil and Sessions Districts came into force from 14th May, 1917. Divisional Sessions Judge, Hoshangabad, ceased to exercise jurisdiction over this District, for which a separate Court of District and Sessions Judge was created at Khandwa. Appeals and revision of the decisions of the First Class Magistrates in the District resulting in conviction and imprisonment for a period upto four years were entertained in the Court of District and Sessions Judge. Sessions cases were also taken up by the Court. The Sessions Judge also took up cases under the Prevention of Corruption Act, from the year 1952. Offences under certain sections of the Code were tried with the assistance of jury. The system of trial of Sessions cases with the aid of assessors was discontinued from the beginning of the year 1956. Except for the appellate, revisional and committal cases the remaining criminal case work was being done by the revenue officers who were invested with Magisterial powers. In addition to these Magistrates, Honorary Magistrates were there to try petty criminal cases. They enjoyed powers according to their status and ability.

This set-up of Magistracy continued till the Country achieved freedom. During the later years of the British rule there was widespread discontent against foreign regime as a result of which the work on criminal side had greatly fallen in arrears. It was found that cases were being repeatedly adjourned on some or the other ground by the officers who were also entrusted with multifarious

duties administrative as well as revenue. The parties were unnecessarily harassed and wasted their time and money by repeated adjournments. This had given rise to discontent in this District too. Consequently, the Provincial Government took a decision to appoint Judge-Magistrates from 1st July, 1950. They were exclusively for First Class, Summary trial, Section 30 Cr. P.C. and Committal criminal case work. They were not in any case to be given revenue and other administrative duties. As a result, there was considerable improvement in the disposal of criminal cases. The appointment of Judge-Magistrates was also a step towards separation of Judiciary from the Executive. These Judge-Magistrates though under the administrative control of the District Magistrate were also responsible to the District and Sessions Judge.

A change in the set-up was introduced with effect from 15th August, 1961. The State was divided into 21 Sessions Divisions. The District continued to form the Sessions Division with its headquarters at Khandwa. The Judicial Officers appointed as Judges of the Courts of District Judge and Additional District Judge in the Civil District were also invested with the powers of Judges of the Courts of Sessions and Additional Sessions Judge of East Nimar Sessions Division. It was also directed that the Additional Sessions Judge shall try such cases committed from the Revenue District and Sessions Division of East Nimar and hear such appeals from the decisions of all the Magistrates in the Revenue District, as the Sessions Judge would from time to time select for trial and hearing by him.[1] The remaining machinery continued to work undisturbed.

Separation of Executive and Judicial Functions

The judiciary had been composed, to a great extent, of members taken from the executive staff. Most of them were entrusted with fiscal and magisterial, in addition to civil judicial duties. This system of administration of which the distinguishing feature was the combination of judicial and executive functions in the same body of officials was then thought most suitable and advantageous since the advent of the British rule in the Non-Regulated Central Provinces.

The beginning of this Century witnessed the introduction of a new scheme for separating the work of administering Civil justice from Criminal, Judicial and executive work. However, comprehensive measures in this direction were taken in accordance with the Directive Principles of State policy as included in Article 50 of Part IV of the Constitution of India. These changes were made effective from the 1st February, 1963 in the District.

Nyaya Panchayats

Towards the end of 1947, the old and much abused institution of Honorary Magistrates was abolished, but to preserve the association of the people with the administration of justice, Nyaya Panchayats were established in the District. These institutions were introduced after the passing of the Central Provinces and

1. Ibid, pp. 1435-1440.

Berar Panchayats Act, 1946 (Act I of 1947). They replaced village Panchayats established under the Central Provinces and Berar Village Sanitation and Public Management Act, (No. II of 1920). The Panchayats Act of 1946, referred to above, has now been replaced by the Madhya Pradesh Panchayats Act, 1962 (Act VII of 1962). These institutious are purely judiciary and have been given wider judicial powers than those enjoyed by the former Village Panchayats. Nyaya Panchayats function within the frame-work of ordinary laws and enable the representatives of the people to participate in the administration of justice in civil and criminal cases of petty nature.

A Nyaya Panchayat has not less than five members called the Panchas, selected from amongst the members of the Gram Panchayats established within the area over which the Nyaya Panchayats has jurisdiction. Every Nyaya Panchayat elects from amongst the Panchas a Pradhan and an Up-Pradhan who preside over the Panchayat. A Secretary appointed by the Janapada Panchayat concerned records proceedings and decisions of the Panchayats.

The Nyaya Panchayats take up both civil and criminal case work. Their jurisdiction has been defined in section 228, 229 and 248 of the Madhya Pradesh Panchayats Act, 1962. In civil cases they take up suits for money and movables upto the value of Rs. 100. The judgements, decrees and orders of Nyaya Panchayats are not appealable, though the District Judge in Civil cases and the Sessions Judge in Criminal cases have been empowered to call for and examine the records of such a case and pass such orders as they deem fit.

Thus, besides the Civil and Criminal Courts there are 33 Nyaya Panchayats working in the District from the year 1947. In Khandwa Tahsil there were 15 Nyaya Panchayats while in Burhanpur and Harsud tahsils, there were 8 and 10 Nyaya Panchayats respectively.

INCIDENCE OF CRIMES

The proportion to reported crime was one to every 966 persons of the population in A.D. 1832. This may be a pointer either to a state of innocence amongst the Nimaris of that period or to a considerable increase of efficiency in the modern police. Later conditions changed. Captain J. Forsyth had drawn quite a different picture of the state of crimes in the District. In 1868, he found that the record of crimes had heavily increased. The proportion of crime rose to one for every 142 persons of the population. In later period too this rising trend of crimes with fluctuations was noticed. While trying to give its plausible explanation, the Annual Administration Reports of various years attributed it to the following circumstances. (1) Rising prices of grain, (2) Better reporting of crimes by the police and people, and (3) an influx of foreigners for employment in the construction work of railway lines. It was then observed that whenever there were scarcity conditions and rise in prices of grain, there was increase in crimes. Thus increase or decrease in petty crimes was mostly governed by bad or good harvests. The police and the people began to take more and more interest in reporting crimes, and by experience

police force made considerable improvements in its efficiency. Large proportion of crime was also due to the central position of the District. It was on the main route between northern, southern and central India. The greatly increased through traffic in goods and the constant stream of travellers along the Khandwa-Indore road—many of them suspicious characters from Bombay and the Central India States—undoubtedly caused an enormous increase in crimes.

A reference may be made here to the problem of dacoity which had menaced the District in the past. It had engaged the attention of Government for considerably long period, i.e., from 1872-73 to 1902-03. The famous Tantiya Bhil to whom reference has been made in the second Chapter of this volume was at large for nearly two decades. Besides his gang, there were two other leaders of dacoits, who with their gangs plundered the District. To put an end to this menace Government had adopted special measures by deputing special officers and police force to this District. Co-operation of Holkar State Police was also solicited and obtained. But Tantiya evaded them all. Practically every year Tantiya and his Bhil followers numbering about 200 created anxiety in the minds of provincial police. They committed crimes with impunity in the District. But ultimately Tantiya was trapped by an ambush and this gave a sigh of relief to all.

The nature and number of various crimes committed in the District during the period 1948-1964 are set forth below.—

Year	Riot	Murder	Kidnapping	Dacoity	Robbery	House breaking	Ordinary theft	Cattle thefts	Cheating	Miscellaneous I.P.C. cases	Total I.P.C. cases
1948	7	19	9	1	6	304	805	64	52	294	1,543
1949	4	22	12	—	3	372	869	39	45	248	1,614
1950	15	8	5	2	11	358	791	37	25	292	1,543
1951	10	17	4	6	11	338	733	41	64	285	1,509
1952	13	9	10	2	11	256	685	46	29	283	1,344
1953	15	15	1	1	5	257	751	38	19	294	1,396
1954	25	11	7	1	3	267	558	34	19	298	1,224
1955	38	16	14	4	11	332	602	37	19	311	1,384
1956	29	21	12	31	6	348	793	30	25	317	1,612
1957	25	32	11	2	22	304	675	31	28	369	1,500
1958	29	24	7	2	11	304	645	43	27	315	1,428
1959	24	14	5	5	17	354	911	38	16	354	1,760
1960	21	20	11	—	17	304	954	38	—	417	1,782
1961	15	12	6	—	6	290	745	30	—	347	1,451
1962	24	10	15	2	13	296	806	35	15	403	1.619
1963	23	16	8	6	6	295	779	60	23	405	1,621
1964	54	17	9	—	14	313	792	46	40	451	1,736

It appears from the Table that minor crimes like house-breaking and ordinary thefts are most numerous. It is worth mentioning that Khandwa District

being a border district had a vulnerable position from the point of view of exodus of criminal gangs from Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan and other parts of Madhya Pradesh which roam about in the District. Burhanpur and Shahpur Police Stations are on the border area of East Khandesh from where confirmed criminals occasionally come and commit crime in collaboration with the local people. The police have to be on constant vigil to curb the activities of these criminals. Construction of Newsprint and Paper Mills at Nepanagar and Khandwa-Hingoli Railway line resulted in the considerable employment of outside labour which caused an increase in the volume of criminal activities.

Prohibition Crimes

Prohibition was enforced in the District in the year 1946. In the beginning an extra police force was posted for the enforcement of this Act. The force continued to work till 1949 and since then the District Executive Force is acting with this constantly increasing work. The Government have further prohibited the consumption of opium, *bhang* and *ganja* in this District. The number of cases under Prohibition Act, Excise Act, Opium Act and Gambling Act detected by the police in the District during the last 17 years is given below.—

Year	Prohibition Act cases	Excise Act cases	Opium Act cases	Gambling Act cases
1	2	3	4	5
1948	360	64	32	104
1949	358	91	56	119
1950	142	56	17	149
1951	193	62	24	146
1952	145	79	19	116
1953	369	71	15	110
1954	385	57	16	71
1955	433	74	12	83
1956	495	75	6	183
1957	721	65	2	246
1958	1044	89	9	295
1959	1456	119	5	419
1960	1045	32	4	194
1961	936	44	3	212
1962	895	56	4	205
1963	795	57	7	243
1964	946	95	—	225

Incidence of sex offences and of criminal breach of trust is not heavy. Such offences are not common. In 1957, cases of rape and criminal breach of trust instituted in courts were 10 and 28, respectively.

ORGANISATION OF THE POLICE FORCE

On the transfer of the Nimar Agency in 1864 to the administration of Central Provinces, the police force of the region was remodelled and reorganised on the pattern adopted in the Central Provinces under Act V of 1861 In order to achieve that end a Special Police Officer was deputed to this District. There was a Provincial police force of the Central Provinces which was under the direct control and supervision of the Inspector General of Police. At district level each district had a police force under the District Superintendent of Police who carried on his duties under the general control of the Deputy Commissioner. Thus the entire police force was controlled by the Inspector-General of Police in matters of discipline and in its internal relations generally but in its executive functions district police force was subordinate to district authority.

Provincial and District police force formed the Imperial or regular police force, and was paid from the general revenue. It was subject to the rules of regular police force. The district police besides District Superintendent of Police consisted of Inspector, other subordinate officers and constables. The police force was classified into two groupts, *viz.*, foot police force and the mounted police force. The former was far greater in number than the latter. This latter force consisted of a few subordinate officers and men. The proportion of police force equipped with fire-arms gradually increased while that of with swords and batons decreased. From 1876-77 onwards the posts of Inspector-General of Police and Inspector-General of Prisons were combined, but again separated later, sometime prior to 1911-12. When dacoits were at large in the District (1870-1889) Special Police Force was placed to hunt them out. Since 1888-89 Special Police establishment was entertained in the District for prevention of opuim smuggling. In the year 1890 Special Armed Reserves were organised in the District and they were equipped with Smider rifles.

Since 1959 the head of the police force in the District has been, redesignated as Superintendent of Police Till the reorganisation of States, the District was under the Deputy Inspector-General of Police Jabalpur range, but since then, i.e., from 1st November, 1956, the District has been under the charge of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Indore range.

The District Executive Force, headed by the Superintendent of Police, comprises, besides the Superintendent and the Deputy Superintendent, Reserve Inspector Lines, Police Prosecutor, Sub-Prosecutors, Circle Inspectors Sub-Inspectors, Assistant Sub-Inspectors, Head Canstables and Constables. In addition there is a District Crime Branch, District Special Branch and *Modus Operandi* Bureau. The whole police is armed, 50 per cent with rifles and 50 per cent with muskets. It may be of interest to note that the local people are not very keen to join the police. Police is mainly manned with persons from Uttar Pradesh and East Khandesh.

In 1876-77 there was one policeman for every eight sq. miles and 500 persons. The proportion of police engaged in 1957 was one man for about seven sq. miles and for about 900 persons. In the year 1870-71 the total sanctioned strength of police force of the District was 426 (66 officers and 360 men). In 1894-95 the strength was 406 (70 officers and 336 men). In 1951 the force consisted of 507 out of which number 401 were constables. In 1964 out of a total of 678, constables were 522 the detailed break-up being as shown below.—

Superintendent of Police	1
Deputy Superintendent of Police	1
Inspector and Sub-Inspectors	56
Subedar	1
Head constables	97
Constables	522
Total	678

The District Police force cost the Exchequer Rs. 5.17 lakhs in 1952 and Rs. 7.44 lakhs in 1964.

Police Stations

The District at present has 18 police stations, at Khandwa, Pandhana, Piplod, Chhegaon, Dhangaon, Mandhata, Jawar, Mundi, and Moghat Road in Khandwa Tahsil; at Burhanpur, Khaknar, Shahpur, Nepanagar, Nimbola, and Lalbag in Burhanpur Tahsil; and at Harsud Baldi, and Khalwa in Harsud Tahsil. Of these police stations those at Burhanpur and Shahpur are on the border area of the State. Naturally they have to be vigilant to curb the activities of criminals from other States too.

Reserve Police

In addition to the Police force distributed in 18 police stations of the District there is a reserve Police Force stationed at Reserve Police Lines at the District headquarters. The force consists of (1) Reserve Inspector, 1 Subedar, 1 Sub-Inspector, 2 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 32 Head Constables, and 186 Constables. The duties of the Reserve force include permanent and temporary guard duties escorting of prisoners, huge cash movements, etc. Permanent guards are provided for the Treasury and N.C.C., besides quarter guards. Escorting of undertrial prisoners from jail to court and back is also a permanent feature. A Striking Force consisting of two Head Constables and 38 Constables is always kept in preparedness to attend to any emergent call from any quarter. This force also includes 1 Head Constable and 4 Constables of Tear Gas Squad.

Railway Police

In the year 1867-68 a Special Police Force was organised in the District to take care of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway line then newly opened in the District. This Railway Police Force being a part of regular police force was under

the control of District Superintendent of Police who then received a small allowance from the Railway Company for his services. When the Holkar State Railway was opened in the District, the force was increased in 1874-75. At present the Government Railway Police stationed in the District is included in the Western Division of the Government Railway Police with headquarters at Jabalpur. This Police is stationed at Khandwa with a Government Railway Police Out-post under it at Burhanpur. The force consists of 1 Sub-Inspector, 5 Head Constables and 22 Constables.

Home Guards

On the attainment of Independence it was considered expedient by the State Government to raise and train a body of Home Guards for aiding the police in their duties in case of an emergency. At the same time it was also desired that the youth of the State be imparted, on voluntary basis, military training in order to inculcate discipline among them. With this object in view Home Guards Act and Rules, 1947, of the Central Provinces and Berar were passed.

An officer of the designation of Company Commandant is in charge of the Home Guards organisation of the District Three instructors have been placed under his command to impart training to these voluntary recruits with their headquarters at the three tahsil places, namely, Khandwa, Burhanpur and Harsud. The Company Commandant is responsible to the Divisional Commandant Home Guards, Jabalpur Division Jabalpur, for all administrative purposes, who in his turn receives necessary instructions from and is subject to the control of the General-Officer-Commanding, Home Guards, Madhya Pradesh.

In the beginning recruits were drawn only from urban areas. They, after their training, formed the wing of Urban Home Guards. When the organisation was found useful, the recruitment was extended to rural areas as well in April, 1948. This formed the wing of Rural Home Guards which is now closed. All Home Guards are generally imparted training for three months covering subjects like drill, weapons, musketry, field craft and police duties. A proportionate number of Home Guards is selected to undergo further training of Commissioned Officers from amongst the trained *sainiks* and are given training at the Madhya Pradesh Home Guards Training Centre for further period of two months. On completion of their training they are appointed as Section Commanders

The training of Urban Home Guards commenced from November, 1947 in this District. The strength of Rural Home Guards, as in case of Urban Home Guards, had also shown fluctuations from time to time on account of fresh training as well as discharge on completion of reservist period.

JAILS AND LOCK-UPS

Till 1864, there was no suitable building for a district jail or lockup at Khandwa. The construction of new jail building was started in 1864-65 and was completed by April, 1869. However, the jail was opened in 1873. The jail is now

called District Jail Class II. It has been located in the Civil lines near District and Tahsil Courts. Its proximity to the Courts has been advantageous as the undertrials can be easily and quickly moved to the Courts trying their cases.

Prison Organisation

Since the inception of jail establishments in the Central Provinces the Deputy Commissioner as Chief Magistrate of the district exercised powers of general supervision over jails in his district. Power of general control and supervision of all the prisons of the Provinces was vested in the Inspector-General of Prisons. Civil Surgeon, the Chief Medical Officer of the district functioned as the Superintendent of the jail. He continues to be in charge of the jail and is assisted by the following staff attached to the sub-jail: Assistant Jailor, Assistant Medical Officer, Teacher, two Head Warders and 11 Warders. The Inspector-General of Prisons as the Head of this Department inspects the jail every year.

Lock-ups

There are two lock-ups each attached to the Tahsil officers of Burhanpur and Harsud. Undertrials are brought and kept there only for the day on which their cases are fixed. For the rest of the period they are kept in the Sub-Jail, Khandwa.

Welfare of Prisoners

The prison discipline is maintained according to the directions contained in paras 706 to 731 of the Jail Manual. In pre-Independence days hard labour was exacted from the prisoners in the Jail. The idea was that criminals when denied pleasures in jail would refrain from committing crimes ending in conviction. Researches in criminology have proved unsoundness of this policy adopted by the then Government. Prison life was the more in the nature of penal punishment. Since the dawn of Independence, the general practice of exacting hard labour from prisoners has been discontinued. Now the prison has not remained a place of punishment. It is more a penitentiary where criminals are educated, enlightened, corrected reformed by imparting them vocational training so that after release they may be able to earn their livelihood and lead a good and honourable life. Now they are required to clean the grain and grind it, poind leaves, and make rope, *niwar*, etc., and do gardening and agricultural work. Provision has also been made to teach them and give them lessons in humanities and ethics. Under the Second Five Year Plan, one post of teacher and another of reformist preacher were created to carry out the objectives of eradication of illiteracy and elimination of criminal mentality from amongst the prisoners. During the year 1958, as many as 57 prisoners were taught to read and write. Facilities for games like volley-ball, *kabaddi* etc., are also provided to the prisoners. Thus, environment and way of life of jail have undergone a healthy change with the introduction of welfare activities.

Board of Visitors

There is a Board of Visitors of four members consisting of the District Magistrate, District and Sessions Judge and two non-official members. They hold meetings every quarter and see to the complaints of the prisoners and undertials. Besides this, the two non-official members visit the jail once every month in rotation. This Board is reconstituted after every three years. There is also one ex-officio non-official visitor. He is the member of the Legislative Assembly and can visit the jail whenever he deems it fit.

Classes of Prisoners

All female prisoners, prisoners of A and B class, all habituals of C class undergoing more than three months' imprisonment, and all casuals undergoing more than two years' imprisonment are sent to Central Jail, Jabalpur. Transfers of the political prisoners depend on the orders of the Inspector General of Prisons. All prisoners under the age of 21 years are sent either to Borstal Institute, Narsimhapur or to Reformatory School, Seoni as ordered by the convicting Court. The remaining prisoners are lodged in the Sub-Jail at Khandwa.

Prison Population

The daily average of prisoners (both male and female) fluctuated between 36.68 (in 1958) and 59.45 (in 1951) during the period 1951 to 1961. Thereafter, it has shown marked increase, rising to 94.16 in 1962, 109.99 in 1963 and 35.44 in 1964.

CASES HANDLED BY COURTS

The statement given below shows the total number of criminal cases instituted, disposed of and pending during the year 1949 to 1964 for all Courts in the District.

Year	Criminal cases instituted	Criminal cases disposed of
1949	4,773	4,013
1950	5,532	4,875
1951	7,116	6.005
1952	8,086	7,012
1953	5,405	4,791
1954	5,300	4,767
1955	5,767	5,455
1956	5,124	5,699
1957	7,674	7,362
1958	9,052	8,464
1959	14,617	14,030
1960	9,286	5,419
1961	7,010	5,151
1962	11,101	7,325
1963	9,909 (a)	7,199 (c)
1964	9,486 (b)	6,144

(a) Includes 3,776 cases pending from provious year

(b) Includes 2,010 cases pending from provious year

(c) Includes 37 cases disposed of under section 203 of Cr.P.C.

The majority of the cases were for offences under the Indian Penal Code, Motor Vehicles Act, and the Prohibition Act. Besides these there were cases under the Public Gambling Act, Excise Act, Opium Act and Police Act.

With the coming into force of the Criminal Procedure Code as amended by Act 26 of 1955 the duration of cases has gone down considerably and the number of pending cases has been reduced.

Civil Suits

Suits instituted in the Revenue District from the year 1911 to 1964 are shown below; figures from 1911 to 1959 are in quinquennial totals, others are for individual years.

Year	Other suits	Small Cause Courts suits	Tenancy suits	Total
1911 to 1915	9,723	20,933	1,513	32,169
1916 to 1920	6,255	27,157	2,194	35,605
1921 to 1925	5,675	25,458	2,061	33,194
1926 to 1930	6,208	38,531	1,878	46,617
1931 to 1935	4,685	29,087	4,874	38,646
1936 to 1940	3,193	13,571	5,742	22,506
1941 to 1945	3,165	8,282	3,006	14,453
1946 to 1950	3,197	8187	1,579	12,963
1951 to 1955	3,517	8,059	1,274	12,850
1956 to 1959	2,417	7,024	151	9,592
1960	638	1,551	5	2,194
1961	675	1,633	4	2,312
1962	N.A.	1,593	—	—
1963	N.A.	1,597	—	—
1964	N.A.	1,615	—	—

The total number of Sessions cases, Criminal appeals and Criminal revisions, received and disposed of in this Sessions Division from the year 1953 to 1964 are given in the Table below.—

Year	Sessions Cases		Criminal Appeals		Criminal Revisions	
	Total for disposal	Disposed of	Total for Disposal	Disposed of	Total for disposal	Disposed of
1953	19	18	139	134	20	16
1954	16	13	109	86	20	17
1955	16	14	150	135	22	14
1956	16	11	200	174	34	22
1957	36	31	222	188	65	47
1958	33	28	141	123	55	44
1959	22	19	128	119	49	45
1960	37	35	160	132	51	39
1961	18	16	191	171	56	51
1962	16	13	172	150	47	36
1963	40	32	193	172	29	27
1964	39	31	154	139	18	14

The following are the judicial statistics showing the number of cases decided both civil and criminal from 1953 to 1964.—

Year	Civil Cases				Criminal Cases			
	Original		Appellate		Original		Appellate	
	Regular	Miscellaneous	Regular	Miscellaneous	Regular	Miscellaneous	Regular	Miscellaneous
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1953	2,285	593	70	23	18	15	134	16
1954	2,512	551	90	23	18	8	84	17
1955	2,674	812	79	31	14	11	135	14
1956	2,305	749	53	35	11	4	174	22
1957	2,724	668	80	45	31	11	183	47
1958	2,508	997	79	20	28	14	123	44
1959	2,529	801	102	38	19	22	119	45
1960	2,396	568	93	50	696	960	132	39
1961	2,547	647	106	64	1,105	603	171	41
1962	2,006	440	140	37	7,325	377	—	—
1963	2,197	393	91	43	7,194	838	—	—
1964	2,596	456	160	30	6,107	563	—	—

(The other details of the cases are given in Appendix)

LEGAL PROFESSION AND BAR ASSOCIATION

With the constitution of regular courts in the District there came into existence a class of persons who practised legal profession. In early period there were no law graduates, and the legal practice was then carried on by some unlicensed and even uneducated persons In the year 1863-64 the Judicial Commissioner of the Central Provinces issued orders which required that persons desirous of practising law should pass a prescribed examination. Accordingly a Board of Examiners was constituted which issued certificates to the successful candidates. This eliminated the element of unlicensed and uneducated pleaders, but failed to attract persons of merit and ability to the legal profession for a long time. The Pleaders Act of 1865 was extended to the Central Provinces in 1879 In the same year the Legal Practitioners Act (No. XVIII of 1879) was passed. Examinations now began to be held under this new Act. From the year 1881-82 even uncertified *Mukhtyars* and petition writers were excluded from the precincts of the Courts under new rules.

Bar Association, Khandwa

The Bar Association at Khandwa was founded in the year 1897. The most remarkable aspect of the Association since its inception has been its cosmopolitan character; its members mostly having been drawn from Maharashtra, Bengal, Madras and Uttar Pradesh This characterstic has been preserved till this day. The present strength of the Bar is about 50.

In 1899, the founder-members embarked on the enrichment of the tools of the profession, and year after year, Indian and foreign law reports and journals, books and treatises, are finding their place on the shelves of its ever-growing library.

Bar Association, Burhanpur

In the beginning when Nimar was included in the Central Provinces, Burhanpur had only a Court of Tahsildar having Revenue, Civil and Criminal powers. A few pleaders, then known as District pleaders, were practising at the Bar till 1873. At that time even matriculates were permitted to practise. In 1902, a Bar Association was formed having a strength of four pleaders. But the regular Bar-Association was formed only in 1916 when the Civil Court building was constructed and a room was allotted to the members of the Bar. About 10 members were practising then. In 1959 the strength of the Bar was 38. The working of the Bar Association is governed by a constitution. It has also got a well-equipped library.

Bar Association, Harsud

This is the youngest Bar Association of the District and has been working since 1937-38. It had a strength of only four members in 1959. It has no library of its own. The members have limited scope of practice as only the Sub-Divisional Office and Sub-Divisional Magistrate and Tahsil Courts are located at Harsud.

CHAPTER XIII

OTHER DEPARTMENTS

In addition to the Government Offices, described in Chapter on "General Administration", the following offices are also located in the District.—

Public Works Department

(a) Roads and Building Branch

There was only one Sub-Division, i.e., Nimar-Sub-Division of the Public Works Department in this District till the year 1952. It was under the charge of the Executive Engineer, West Berar Division, Akola. The same year, however, an Executive Engineer's Division was established in the District, at Khandwa. Then followed the establishment of two more sub-divisions at Khandwa and Burhanpur in 1954 and 1956, respectively.

Khandwa Division was, under the Superintending Engineer, Berar Circle, Amraoti till 1955, after which it passed on to the supervision of the Akola Circle. After the Reorganisation of the State in 1956, its supervision was vested in the Betul Circle. Now the Division is under the Superintending Engineer, Indore Circle, Indore.

Khandwa Division has at present four sub-divisions, each under the charge of a Sub-Divisional Officer. Each sub-division is further divided into sections, each in charge of an Overseer. There are 18 Overseers and 9 Sub-Overseers in this District, working under the sub-Divisional Officers. The sub-divisions and the work undertaken by each one of them are as under.—

(1) Nimar Sub-Division, with headquarters at Khandwa, looks after construction and maintenance of building at Khandwa town and a few minor roads outside.

(2) Khandwa Sub-Division located at Khandwa, is responsible for roads in Khandwa Tahsil and roads and buildings in Harsud Tahsil.

(3) Burhanpur Sub-Division, Burhanpur, constructs and maintains all roads and buildings in Burhanpur Tahsil

(4) Survey Sub-Division, with headquarters at Khandwa, has been created to carry out survey of all roads of East Nimar District.

The total yearly expenditure of the division for construction and maintenance of roads, buildings and bridges is about Rs. 36,00,000 Buildings of the capital cost of Rs. 30,00,000 are being maintained by the Department at an annual expenditure of Rs. 52,000.

During the First Five Year Plan period, 140 miles of roads were completed apart from work started on a number of buildings. The same mileage of road was completed in the Second Five Year Plan period. Apart from the roads, the buildings that have been completed in the Second Five Year Plan period consist of the Main Hospital, Khandwa, built at a cost of Rs. 5,04,000, Multipurpose High School and Government Girls High School built at the cost of Rs. 1,21,000 and Rs. 5,72,000, respectively. Besides, a number of class I, II and III officer's quarters were constructed at Khandwa and Harsud. In addition, four buildings, namely P. G. B. T. College at Khandwa (Rs. 16, 16,000), Vocational High School at Khandwa (Rs. 2,95,000), Government High School at Harsud (Rs. 3,62,000) and a building for Industrial Training Institute at Khandwa (Rs. 8,00,000) were also completed.

Further, National Extention Service staff quarters and officers' bungalows have been completed at Burhanpur, Khaknar, Khandwa and Harsud. Between April, 1961 to March 1965, about 55 miles of roads, 21 bridges and 6 major buildings have been constructed at a cost of about Rs. 34 lakhs.

(b) Irrigation Branch

Irrigation branch of the Public Works Department, prior to 25th June 1964 had its three sub-divisions in the district, each working under a Sub-Divisional Officer. They were: (i) Minor Irrigation Sub-Division, Khandwa, which was established to look after the construction, maintenance, survey and investigation of minor irrigation works in the tahsils of Khandwa and Harsud; (ii) Minor Irrigation Sub-Division, Burhanpur is in charge of minor irrigation works in Burhanpur Tahsil and (iii) Sukta project Sub-Division, with its headquarters at Borgaon was organised to carry out survey and investigation of Sukta river for constructing a medium irrigation project near the village.

All these three sub-divisions were responsible to the Executive Engineer, Irrigation Division, Hoshangabad. But from the 25th June. 1964 first two sub-divisions are under the administrative control of the Executive Engineer, Irrigation Division, Khargone who is responsible to the Superintending Engineer, Irrigation Circle, Hoshangabad. The Sukta Project Sub-Division has, since 25th June 1964 been transferred to the newly created Sukta Project Division, Khandwa which is an Executive Engineer's charge. Achievements of these sub-divisions have already been adequately described in the chapter on Agriculture and Irrigation.

Agriculture Department

Prior to 1951 the District was included in the Wheat Zone of the erst while Madhya Pradesh and the agricultural work of the District was looked after by the

Extra-Assistant Director of Agriculture, Hoshangabad who was helped by the Technical Assistant posted at Khandwa. In the year 1951, the District was transferred to the Cotton Zone and Extra Assistant Director, Buldana took over the charge of the agricultural work of the district.

Since 1955, a post of Extra-Assistant Director was created in the District. After November, 1956, the district was attached to the Indore Division and the old set-up continued with a few minor changes. In may, 1965 the district office of Agriculture Department underwent a major change. A post of Deputy Director of Agriculture was created in the district, and since then he is in charge of the District office of agriculture.

One Assistant Director of Agriculture has been provided to assist the Deputy Director in field work. In technical matters the Deputy Director gets assistance from a Technical Assistant and other subordinate officials who are assigned the work of different sections, *viz.*, publicity, special crops including horticulture, and general extension of agriculture. The district has nine extension Blocks. Each one of these has been provided with one Agricultural Extension. Officer to carry on agricultural extension work in his respective block. Since April 1964 the Dry Farming Intensive Agricultural Programme has been launched in all the blocks of the district. To make a success of this programme an additional Agricultural Extension Officer is posted in each of the blocks. They in turn are assisted by village level workers.

The District has been divided into three sub-divisions, conterminous with the three tahsils, for purposes of soil conservation. At the headquarters of each of the sub-division one Assistant Soil Conservation Officer, assisted by 20 surveyors, is posted.

A plant protection unit of the Department is working in the District. One plant protection Assistant and four Demonstrators are attached to the unit. For the Tractor Unit of the Department, operating in the District. there is one Agricultural Assistant, assisted by four Demonstrators. The Cotton Package Programme has been implemented from the year 1963-64 in two of the Blocks, *viz.*, Shahpur and Khaknar. For this work three Agricultural Assistants (Cotton) and two Plant Protection Assistants are posted at Burhanpur and two Agricultural Assistants (Cotton) are working in the Khaknar block. To look after the work of Government Seed Multiplication Farms, one each at Burhanpur and Harsud, Farm Superintendents are attached to them.

Statistical section of the Department conducts the survey to assess the spread of the various improved agricultural practices in the District. For this section one Research Assistant and four Investigators are posted in the office of the Deputy Director of Agriculture.

Forest Department

Prior to 1962, forests of East Nimar District were under the charge of one

Divisional Forest Officer. There were 9 Forest Ranges in the Division. Of these 5 ranges were grouped to form South Sub-Divisional Office at Nepanagar. This was created subsequent to the opening of Nepa Newsprint Factory for the feeding of which large scale *Salai* plantation was undertaken. From April, 1960, Chandgarh and Kalibhit Ranges which though part of East Nimar District but .were under the charge of Divisional Forest Officer, Harda, were transferred to Khandwa Division. Thus, with 11 ranges Khandwa Division was the biggest charge in the whole of Madhya Pradesh.

With a view to creating conditions for more efficient management, forests of the District were divided into two in 1962. Thus there were two Forest Divisions in the District namely, North Khandwa and South Khandwa Divisions, each under the Charge of a Divisional Forest Officer. North Khandwa Forest Division had a Sub-Division-Kalibhit Sub-Division, under the charge of Sub-Divisional Forest Officer. This Division was divided into 8 ranges, 14 Range Assistant Circles and 182 Forest Guard Beats. The South Khandwa Forest Division included one sub-division, called Nepanager Forest Sub-Division with its headquarters at Nepanagar. There were 5 ranges, 15 sub-ranges and 77 beats in this Division.

In the years 1964 and 1965 forest divisions were reorganised. Thus in May, 1965 the position was as under.—

1. North Khandwa Forest Division was under the Divisional Forest Officer, having 7 ranges, 12 sub-ranges and 168 beats.
2. South Khandwa Forest Division having 6 ranges, 16 sub-ranges and 87 beats was under the other Divisional Forest Officer.
3. Nepa Plantation Division was under an independent Divisional Forest Officer having 4 ranges, 10 sub-ranges and 14 beats. Its headquarter was at Nepanagar.
4. Nepa Soil Survey Division with its headquarters at Khandwa was created in January, 1965 to carry out survey in the whole of the District for plantation of *salai* to feed Nepa Mills.

These Divisions are now under the administrative control of Conservator of Forests, Hoshangabad Circle, since June, 1964.

In addition to the Divisions above mentioned one more Working Plan Division has been created in July, 1964, under the Working Plan Officer to revise the working plan of the forest of East Nimar. It is under the administrative control of Conservator of Forests, Working Plan Circle, Rewa.

Veterinary Department

District Livestock Officer is the head of the office in the District. He is assisted in his work by qualified Assistant Veterinary Surgeons, and Compounders

posted in various veterinary hospitals and dispensaries etc. The District Livestock Officer is responsible to the Deputy Director of Veterinary Services, Indore.

The main function of the Department is to work for an all-round welfare and improvement in the cattle-wealth of the District. It extends good breeding facilities, takes measures for prevention and cure of cattle diseases, supervises cattle markets and cattle fairs where large scale innoculation is carried on for prevention of cattle diseases.

Formerly the Department was running a few full-fledged veterinary dispensaries and outlying dispensaries in the District. Outlying veterinary dispensaries, started on 50:50 basis by the department in collaboration with the Janapada Sabhas, were six till 1960-61 when this scheme was dropped.

Subsequently under the Plan, two veterinary hospitals were started in 1961-62 and 1964-65, respectively. One more veterinary dispensary was also established in 1964-65. The veterinary hospital working under the Municipal Council Khandwa since 1905 was taken over by the Department in 1962. By the close of the financial year 1964-65, 13 veterinary hospitals and 14 veterinary dispensaries were working in the Development Blocks of the District. Some of these were run by the Block authorities while others were under the Department.

Besides, the Block Authorities and the Veterinary Department were running, respectively, four and two artificial Insemination Centres. Mortakka Quarantine Station of the Department has been shifted to Mandsore District with effect from 7th June 1965. The Department is also maintaining one poultry farm at Khandwa.

Industries Department

In the beginning, the Department was looked after by the Assistant Director of Industries, stationed at Nagpur. After the reorganisation of the State in 1956 he was stationed at Indore. Since April, 1959 separate District Officer under the Assistant Director of Industries was started at Khandwa. The main object of the Department is to look after the promotion of the small-scale industries in the District. The Assistant Director of Industries was assisted by a Regional Inspector, a Circle Auditor and Manager of Weaver's Co-operative Society. The Office of the Regional Inspector, Handlooms was located at Burhanpur. Only recently, under Government orders, the work of industrial co-operative and handlooms has been transferred to the Registrar Co-operative Societies. Now the work in connection with promotion of handloom industry is being looked after by the Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Khandwa. However, the Industries Department is responsible for rendering all technical guidance to the industrial co-operatives.

Apart from the above staff, in each Block there are Block Level Extension Officers of Industries, who are responsible for promoting and carrying out all

industrial development in the block area. In 1964, there were 8 Extension Officers of Industries in as many Development Blocks of the District. In Baldi Block, however, there was no Extension Officer of Industries. These Extension Officers work under the direct control and supervision of the Block Development officer.

In the year 1962, the Government of India, under the advice of the Rural Industries Planning Committee, established Rural Industries Project in six Development Blocks of East Nimar District. The main purpose of the Rural Industries Project is to intensify activities in the rural areas so as to develop cottage and small scale industries, primarily depending on the local raw materials. This Rural Industries Project is under the charge of the Deputy Director of Industries, who is the Project Officer. He is assisted by an Assiatant Director of Industries. After the establishment of this project, now there are 2 Officers in the District, who are responsible for promoting the industrial development not only under the Rural Industries Project but of the District as a whole.

Achievements

The special achievements of this Department are described below.—

1. Establishment of a Dye House, attached to the Weaver's Societies at Burhanpur, which has solved the problem of coloured thread. This was primarily looked after by the Assistant Director of Industries but now with the transfer of handloom work to the Registrar, Co-operative Societies, it is locked after by the Assistant Registrar Co-operative Societies, Khandwa.
2. An Industrial Estate consisting of three blocks having nine sheds has been constructed at Burhanpur at a cost of Rs. 2,27,115. The area covered by the Industrial Estate is 22.72 acres, out of which some area has been given over to the Appex Weavers' Society for construction of the Weavers' Colony.
3. A Weavers' Colony, consisting of 50 houses, has been constructed by the Appex Weavers' Society, Jabalpur, out of the loan granted by the State Government. The Colony is ready and has been handed over to three co-operative societies of Burhanpur, which in their turn have allotted the same to the individual members.
4. An industrial co-operative society for calendaring and processing of cloth has been formed at Burhanpur. At present, the powerloom weavers have to send their cloth for calendaring and sizing to Bombay and most of the profit that should ordinarily come to the weavers is taken away by the businessmen at Bombay. This society will be a great help to the powerloom workers.
5. A co-operative society for starting a Spinning Mill has already been set up at Burhanpur. The members of this co-operative society will be the cotton growers, handloom and powerloom workers and others.

The members have to contribute a share capital of Rs. 10 lakhs while equal amount will be contributed by the State Government. The total estimated out-lay in setting up the Spinning Mill will be about Rs. 70 lakhs.

Co-operative Department

History of this department in this District dates back to the year 1913 when the office of a Circle Auditor was created consequent upon the establishment of District Co-operative Bank, Ltd., at Khandwa, with other societies affiliated to it. The Circle Auditor was assisted by Society Auditors and Sub-Auditors. In addition, extra staff was provided for valuers' work. This set-up continued till 1954 when, the administrative set up of this Department in the State underwent a change. Under the changed set-up an office of the Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies was created, which looked after the districts of East Nimar and Hoshangabad. Since 1956, however, the jurisdiction of the Assistant Registrar was restricted to East Nimar district only. In addition, the office of the Deputy Registrar was also opened, which was later transferred to Indore in November, 1956.

At present, the Assistant Registrar is assisted in his work by an Audit Officer in auditing accounts of all societies, a Senior Co-operative Inspector to work as Technical Assistant and to look after the Plan Scheme, a Marketing Inspector for supervision and inspection of Primary Marketing Societies, a *Taccavi* Inspector to provide taccavi allotments through Central Co-operative Bank, to verify proper utilisation of those loans and to supervise the distribution of seeds, fertilisers, etc. a Special Officer, Farming, to organise, supervise and inspect Co-operative Farming Societies, organised under pilot project and Non-pilot Project, a Co-operative Inspector, Farming to audit Co-operative Farming Societies and a Junior Co-operative Extension Officer (Farming) to guide Farming societies. Besides there are 4 Co-operative Inspectors, 4 Valuers, 9 Co-operative Extension Officers, 15 Sub-Auditors and one Statistical Assistant. Of the nine Co-operative Extension Officers one each is posted in Development Blocks of the District. They are to supervise and implement all types of Co-operative schemes in their respective Blocks. Sub-Auditors all of whom are posted at Khandwa, audit the annual accounts of the Societies.

For supervising and executing the Handloom scheme in the District there is one Regional Inspector with headquarters at Burhanpur. He is assisted by a Senior Superviser and two Sub-Auditors. The handloom staff posted at Khandwa include a Circle Auditor and two Stamping Inspectors.

CHAPTER XIV

LOCAL SELF GOVERNMENT

The village was the basic unit of administration in our Country from times Immemorial. The literary and inscriptional evidence attests to the prevalence of the village panchayat system in India from the Vedic times to the advent of the British rule. These village institutions successfully administered the affairs of the village, provided for various civic services and administered justice. Although the changes in social, economic and political conditions brought about inevitable changes in their pattern, none the less, the self-sufficient village communities continued to flourish throughout the length and breadth of India. The introduction of the British administration, however, dealt a death-blow to these village institutions. Under the highly centralised system of their administration, both revenue and judicial, the self-governing village institutions began to decay and they practically disappeared by the middle of the 19th Century.

Beginning of the municipal administration in the District was made when under the Act XV of 1867, municipalities were established in 6 places of the District, namely, Khandwa, Burhanpur, Mandhata, Borgaon, Zainabad and Shahada. In 1868, provision was made to the effect that two-thirds elected and one-third official members should constitute a municipal committee. Local self-government as a conscious process of administrative devolution and political education really began with Lord Mayo's Resolution of 1870, which dealt with financial decentralisation. He advised the Provincial Governments to enlist popular assistance in the work of social advancement. This resulted in the enactment of a series of lagislation on the local self-government in the various provinces.

In the Central Provinces, the first Municipalities Act, passed in 1873, (Act XI of 1873) introduced elective principle in the constitution of the municipal committees. All municipal areas were divided into wards and the number of members to be elected from each ward was fixed. In towns, where there was direct taxation, all tax-payers were given the right to vote in municipal elections, to be held every three years. In places wnere indirect taxation existed, all male house-holders earning their bread by labour were declared as electorate. Efforts were made that all classes of people residing in the municipal area should adequately be represented on the municipal committees. By the year 1879-80, the system of formation of sub-committees, and assignment of different items of work to different members, was adopted. The municipal committees of the District were reconstituted under the Act of 1873, each consisting of more than five members,

whether elected, selected or nominated; and two fifths of them were other than salaried officers of Government[1]. In the early years of municipal administration, octroi was the principal source of revenue and it was devoted, first to provide for police, and then for the construction, maintenance, repairs and conservancy of public streets, roads, drains, tanks and water-courses.[2] Further, they had to look after all schools, located in municipal area, which were managed by the Government till 1883 and after which were transferred to the care of the municipalities. The Chief Commissioners, in 1884, issued orders for the revision of Octroi Schedules, whereupon only main items of consumption were taxed. This measure led to the reduction in the income of Zainabad and Borgaon Municipalities, which were abolished towards the close of the year 1885.[3] The same reasons led to the abolition of two more municipalities of the District, namely, Shahada and Mandhata in 1888 and 1892, respectively.

After the Act of 1873, the next important step in the advancement of urban local self-government was taken by Lord Ripon. His famous Resolution of 1882 advocated the extension of local self-government, primarily as an instrument of popular and political education and aimed at inducing people themselves to undertake management of their own affairs. Accordingly, the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces directed in 1882 that in future there should be no appointment of ex-officio members on municipal bodies, which were to consist of elected and nominated members only.[4] He also directed that the strength of the nominated members should not exceed one-third of the whole committee and that the President and Vice-President be chosen by the members themselves. Subsequently, a new Municipalities Act was passed in the Province in 1889, which incorporated suggestions contained in Lord Ripon's Resolution Municipalities of the District were reconstituted under the Act of 1889. It changed the basis of conduct of election, constitution of the municipalities and appointment of office-bearers.

It seems that from the same year Deputy Commissioner. Nimar, became the President of Khandwa Municipality. It had been the custom for a Tahsildar to be President of Municipality of smaller out-lying places.[5] General elections were held generally after every three years. Since 1892 onwards there remained two municipalities, *viz.*, Khandwa and Burhanpur. Following was the position of members constituting those bodies in the year 1900.—

Municipality	Population	Number of Members					
		Ex-Officio	Nominated	Elected	Total	Official	Non-official
Khandwa	15589	1	5	12	18	3	15
Burhanpur	32252	—	3	15	18	1	17

1 C. P. Administration Report, 1877-78, p. XXVII.
2 Ibid, p. XXIX.
3 Ibid, 1885-86, p 16
4. Ibid, 1883-84, pp. 23-24.
5. Ibid, 1893-94, p. 18.

In two resolutions of 1896 and 1897 Lord Elgin laid further conditions of progress with regard to the local self-Government. This led to the passage of the Municipalities Act of 1903 which was more specific in regard to the powers of the municipal committees. The two municipalities of the District were once again reconstituted under the Act of 1903, which introduced the system of retirement of members by rotation. However, during the year 1915-16, this was done away with and, instead, old system of triennial election was once again introduced in Khandwa and Burhanpur. The next important step, since Ripon's resolution, was taken in the sphere of urban local self-government when the Decentralisation Commissions recommendations were, by and large, accepted by the Government through a resolution passed in 1915. The Commission had recommended substantial elected majority in local bodies, election of non-official Chairman in municipalities and greater freedom in financial matters. This was followed by the Mont-Ford Report which, by accepting these recommendations, went a long way in further democratizing the municipal bodies. It was followed by the Government of India's resolution of 1918 which reiterated the principle of political education of the people through the instrumentality of local self-governing institutions, enunciated by Lord Ripon. The Government of India Act of 1919 transferred the subject of local self-government to Provinces, under the charge of a popular Minister. This had the desired effect.

A new Act, namely, the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act, was passed in 1922. It was designed to give effect to the policy of political education of the people. The main feature of the Act was that it extended the municipal franchise to all persons whose monthly income was not less than Rs. 10. The Act also aimed at abolition of official control and the reduction in number of nominated members of municipalities. Later, in 1927, the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities (First Amendment) Act was passed which prescribed that the number of nominated members should not exceed that of selected members. During the era of the Provincial Autonomy, the year 1939 witnessed the enactment and the enforcement of a few legislations effecting important changes in the system of local self-government of the urban area. The Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities (Second Amendment Act 1939), provided election of President by adult franchise and the procedure for his removal and for the appointment and removal of Vice-Presidents. The Third Amendment Act, 1939 introduced adult franchise while the Fourth Amendment Act, 1939 abolished the system of nomination. Thus by lowering the franchise qualification further democratisation of urban local self-government was achieved. Nominations, which had continued during the period of dyarchy were considered undemocratic, and therefore, abolished. In their place a system of compulsory election was substituted to enable the minorities and backward classes to secure representation on the municipal committees. Owing however, to the resignation of Congress Ministry in 1939, other reforms relating to local bodies in urban areas remained in abeyance.

When the Congress Government resumed office in 1946, a comprehensive amending Act, the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities (Amendment)

Act, 1947 was passed. It was enacted to implement some of the recommendations of the Local Self-Government Enquiry Committee, 1935. Under the Act, President was provided with the power to perform all the duties and exercise all the executive powers conferred on him for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of the above Act. This system was, however, again revised in 1958, and since then the President and two Vice-Presidents have to be elected by municipal councillors. In order to bring uniformity in the pattern of urban local self-government institutions throughout the new State of Madhya Pradesh, the Urban Local Self-Government Committee was appointed in 1957 to examine the whole question. In pursuance of its recommendations the Madhya Pradesh Municipalities Act, 1961 was passed.

Under the new Act, the system of indirect election of the President, either from amongst the elected or selected members or from outside by the councillors has been retained. Under this Act every municipality is required to form a Standing Committee of nine members. Formation of four Executive Committees, each of not more than 5 members, is obligatory. These committees are on finance, education, public works and water works, and public health. If need be one constructive committee can also be formed in addition to four obligatory Executive Committees.

According to this Act each municipal council shall consist of (a) elected councillors (b) selected councillors, not exceeding one-fourth of the total elected councillors, of whom at least one shall be a woman. The State Government has been empowered to fix from time to time the number of seats to be reserved for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

DISTRICT COUNCIL AND LOCAL BOARDS

Another important step towards introduction of local self-government in the District was taken in 1884 when under Central Provinces' Local Self-Government Act (I of 1883) Nimar District Council and Khandwa and Burhanpur Local Boards were created. The measure was intended "to create and foster a spirit of co-operation in the work of Government and to devolve upon representatives of the people those minor details of administration of which Government officers may with advantage be relieved.[1]"

The Local Board's domain was only tahsil while the District Council had jurisdiction over the whole district. Local Boards worked under the controlling agency of the District Council. For election to Local Boards, villages of tahsils were grouped in circles. Circles authorised to elect their representatives had representatives[2] of *mukaddams* (headmen of villages) chosen by the residential landowners of the villages of the circles which the former represented; representatives of mercantile classes or professions. Besides these elected non-official members,

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1 C. P. Administration Report, 1883-84 p. VIII.
2 Ibid

the Chief Commissioner nominated some members. Like the Local Boards, the District Council too was constituted of elected and nominated members. The members of the District Council were elected not by direct representation but by and from the Local Boards.

Elections to the Council and Boards were to take place after a term of three years. The statement below shows the constitution of Nimar District Council and two Local Boards in 1897-98.[1]

Name	Population	Number of Members		
		Nominated	Elected	Total
Nimar District Council	1,99,768	4	12	16
Khandwa Local Board	1,53,314	3	11	14
Burhanpur Local Board	46,449	4	9	13

The constitution of the District Council and Local Boards of the District underwent a change in the year 1899-1900, when a third Local Board was established for the newly constituted Harsud Tahsil. Thereafter the constitution of Council and Boards of this District was as under.[2]

Name	Area in Sq. miles	Population	Number of Members		
			Nominated	Elected	Total
Nimar District Council	1962	2,26,811	4	14	18
Khandwa Local Board	1102	1,14,265	3	12	15
Burhanpur Local Board	310	46,449	4	9	13
Harsud Local Board	550	35,097	3	7	10

Of the nominated members of the District Council two were officials, while each Local Board had one official.

The District Council was expected to look after the management and upkeep of all the rural schools, cattle-pounds, dispensaries including veterinary, ferry contracts, and *nazul* lands of the non-municipal areas. The work of construction and maintenance of roads and other local public works were also entrusted to it. All these duties were gradually transferred to it during 1884-90. Later in 1910, some of the duties were transferred from District Council to Local Boards, which till then were entrusted with the management of minor Civil works, rural schools and cattle-pounds under the supervision of the District Council. At the same time, the management of the village markets was also transferred to the District Council and Local Boards.

1. Report on the Working of District Council and Local Boards, 1897-98, Statement 1.
2. Ibid, 1855 to 1900.

The District Council of this District opened and managed Hindi and Marathi middle schools, and primary schools imparting education in Hindi, Marathi and Urdu for both[1] boys and girls. As regards the management of hospitals, dispensaries and vaccination, the District Council used to subsidise them from District Funds.

In respect of construction and maintenance of roads the policy of the Provincial Government underwent many changes from time to time. In the beginning, when District Council was formed in the District, this responsibility was left to that body. But owing to the difficulties experienced by the Board it was decided that the work should be carried on through the agency of Public Works Department. The Chief Commissioner arranged to place the advice and assistance of the Public Works Officers at the disposal of the Deputy Commissioner and District Council in regard to their local[2] works. From April 1903, policy of provincialisation[3] of roads was adopted and the District Council then remained in charge of village roads of the district. All roads hitherto repaired through the agency of Public Works Department were transferred to the independent control of the P.W.D.[4]

Financial Resources

When the District Councils and Local Boards came into existence the charges they were to meet and the income they were to receive were determined by the Government. In some cases allotments were required to be made from Provincial revenues in order to make them solvent. The amount of these allotments was settled and fixed for a term of three years.[5] New District Funds were not created and the local bodies were not given powers of taxation. When the control of rural schools was transferred to Local bodies a contribution was made to the District Council from Provincial Revenues to supplement its income from school cess which was made over to it

The Nimar District Council, apart from contributions from Provincial revenues, derived its income from road cess, education cess and cattle pounds. The average income of the District Council for the decade ending 1906-07 was Rs. 61,000 and the expenditure was slightly less. In 1906-07 the income Rs. 90,500 was made up of road cess Rs. 16,000, education cess Rs. 9,000, pound receipts Rs. 21.000 and contributions from Provincial revenues Rs. 26,000. The expenditure in the same year was Rs. 86,000. The principal heads of expenditure being cattle-pound charges Rs. 11,000, education Rs. 24,000. medical charges Rs. 7,000, civil works Rs. 22,000 including a contribution of Rs. 8,500 to Provincial revenues

1. Records of the District Council (1938-1948), preserved in the office of the Janapada Sabha, Khandwa.
2. C. P. Administration Report, 1886-87, p. IV-V.
3. Ibid, 1902-1903, p. 21.
4. Ibid, p. X.
5. Ibid, 1884-85, p VI.

for roads under the Public Works Department, and veterinary charges Rs. 1,500. As a result of Decentralisation Commission's recommendations, District Funds were, since 1908, excluded from Provincial accounts and Local Boards were delegated substantial powers of expenditure.

Following the Mont-Ford Report and the Government of India Act, 1919, a new legislation, Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act, 1920, was passed. The new Act represented a great advance both in liberalisation of constitution and in grant of powers of taxation. Under the new Act the District was divided into groups and circles. For each group of circles a Local Board and for each district a District Council was established. District Council was composed of two-thirds of the total members elected not directly but by and from the Local Boards, one-sixth of persons selected from the general electorate by the members elected by the Local Boards and one-sixth, other than Government officials, appointed by the Government by nomination. Local Boards consisted of elected and nominated members only. The latter were not to exceed one-fourth of the total membership. According to the new policy officials were to be relieved of their offices under local bodies, but it seems that practical elimination of officials from Local bodies of this District was not achieved till the year 1934-35, when there were two ex-officio members on the Nimar District Council. In the same year, Burhanpur and Harsud Local Boards had, respectively, two, and one ex-officio members.The Table below shows constitution of the District Council and Local Boards in the year 1934-35.—

Name	Area in sq. miles	Population	Number of Members				
			Ex-officio	Nominated	Elected	Selected	Total
Nimar District Council	1962	3,88,243	2	3	12	3	20
Khandwa Local Board	1102	1,99,342	—	2	13	—	15
Burhanpur Local Board	310	1,01,175	2	1	9	—	12
Harsud Local Board	550	87,726	1	1	7	—	9

A few minor changes were introduced in the constitution of these local bodies as a result of Local Self-Government (Amendment) Act, 1939. It abolished the system of nomination of members to Local bodies and secured representation for Harijans, Muslims and Women on those bodies if they were not otherwise represented. With the abolition of nominations, practical elimination of official element was achieved.

Under the Act of 1920 the Local bodies began to impose and realise taxes. The Grants-in-aid to Local Bodies Act, 1939 provided for the payment of a grant to Local bodies approximately equal to the sums realised by them in the shape of certain fees and fines which under the Government of India, Act, 1935 were

1. Nimar District Gazetteer, 1908, p. 188.

required to be credited to the Provincial revenues. The Table below shows income and expenditure of the Nimar District Council in a few selected years.—

Year	Income	Expenditure
1900-01	47,317	52,292
1910-11	88,718	91,077
1920-21	2,13,552	2,63,297
1930-31	2,20,776	2,54,473
1940-41	1,84,743	1,93,951
1947-48	3,49,412	3,78,460

After the assumption of power by the Congress Ministry in 1938, a new scheme aiming at a thorough decentralisation of powers and functions of the Local bodies was prepared. The scheme proposed to make the District Council a unit of administration for the purposes of local self-government as well as for the purpose of decentralised general administration. But owing to the resignation of the popular Ministry, the Scheme could not be implemented.

After attainment of Independence, a new Act was passed in 1948, according to which District Council and Local Boards were abolished and instead a Janapada Sabha was established at tahsil level in all the three tahsils of the East Nimar District. A detailed description of Janapada Sabhas follows later.

Panchayats

The arrangement for village conservancy was made as long back as 1865-66, when the Mukaddams (headmen) of the villages in the Central Provinces were entrusted with the task of keeping the village clean. Subsequently in the year 1889, the Central Provinces Village Sanitation Act was Passed and steps for improving the sanitation and water supply in the rural areas of the East Nimar District were taken. Before the passage of this Act, 24 villages in the District were managed under what were then known as Basti Fund Rules. Income was derived from a house-tax, cattle-trespas fines and other sources, and spent on improvement of water supply and village roads. With the introduction of Village Sanitation Act the old Basti Funds disappeared. In the first decade of this Century 36 villages in the District were under the *Mukaddams* who, as stated above, were responsible for village conservancy.

Although Lord Ripon's Resolution was of far reaching importance so far as the development of the local self-government was concerned, it did not recommend devolution of authority at the village level. It was the Royal Commission on Decentralisation which underlined the importance of the village as a basic unit of administration and recommended establishment of Panchayat in every village. The Government of India through a resolution, issued in 1915, accepted the principle regarding the creation of village panchayats. This was also accepted

by the Mont-Ford Report and Resolution of 1918, both of which endorsed the suggestion for establishment of village panchayats, designed to develop corporate life in the rural areas. On the transfer of the Department of Local Self-Government to the Provincial Government, under the charge of a popular Minister, the Central Provinces and Berar Village Sanitation and Public Management Act, 1920, and the Central Provinces and Berar Village Panchayat Act, 1920, were passed.

Both Acts gave identically the same administrative responsibility, namely, conservancy and water supply, the construction and maintenance of roads, and the undertaking of any measure likely to be of public utility. But the Village Panchayat Act differed from the Village Sanitation and Public Management Act in that the former went further and provided for the constitution of Panchayat Courts with civil and criminal powers. It also differed fundamentally from the latter in that it vested wide powers of control in District Council, whereas the Sanitation Act gave panchayats, constituted under it, the option of working under the control of District Council and in practice, panchayats were mostly independent of them.

The Village Panchayat Act provided that the Deputy Commissioner should establish a village panchayat on an application made either from the District Council or by not less than 20 adult residents of a village or of the group of village where it was proposed to form a panchayat. The number of *panchas* varied from 9 to 15. The work of the village panchayats was to be carried out under the supervision of a sub-committee appointed for the purpose by the District Council. There was also one Village panchayat Officer for the District to supervise the work of all panchayats. The post was later abolished but was again revived from February 1933, and placed under the general control of the Registrar, Co-operative Societies. The District Council was given overriding powers over the village panchayats. The former was given power to control levying of taxes by the latter, pass its budgets and reverse or vary any resolution or order passed by the panchayats. There were no rules difining the relations between panchayats and District Council. When a conflict arose between the two it was decided that panchayats were not under the control of District Council.

When the Panchayat Act was passed it was provided therein that the Sanitation Committees should, wherever possible, be converted into village Panchayats. Though the Central Provinces and Berar Village Panchayats Act came into force in 1922, it was not made operative in this District till the year 1926. In 1923, the District Council of Nimar passed a resolution requesting the Deputy Commissioner to take steps towards replacing Sanitation Committees at Harsud, Mundi, Pandhana and Shahpur by village panchayats. Nothing was, however, done till 1926 when the Minister for Local Self Government issued instructions that all Sanitation Committees should be converted into village panchayats. Accordingly village panchayats were organised at Shahpur and Harsud during the same year. In the year 1928-29, 21 more village panchayats were organised.

In 1941 there were 30 village panchayats in the District and their income and expenditure was highest in the Central Provinces. With better financial resources at their command, the panchayats of this District were carrying on far more public utility services than any other district of the Province e.g. three panchayats were maintaining night schools for adult education, seven were subscribing for newspapers, two had libraries, four were maintaining dispensaries, one was running a child welfare centre, two were maintaining trained midwives and six had taken to street-lighting. In 1938 the popular Ministry prepared a scheme for expanding the powers and functions of rural local self-government. But due to resignation of Congress Ministry this scheme could not be implemented.

In order to amend the old Act relating to the village panchayats, the Central Provinces and Berar Village Panchayat Act was passed and enforced with effect from February 28, 1947. The development of the panchayats in the post-Independence period is described later in this Chapter.

MUNICIPALITIES

At present there are two municipalities in the District at Khandwa and Burhanpur. Both the municipalities were first constituted on the 17th May, 1867. At that time they did not function on democratic pattern and were more or less adjuncts of the Government, functioning under the direct control of Collector in case of Khandwa and Sub-Divisional Officer in case of Burhanpur. Several Acts. i.e., Acts of 1873, 1889, 1903, 1922, 1939, 1947 and 1961 were passed by the Provincial legislature Each Act carried the process of democratisation of the Local bodies further.

Khandwa Municipality

Khandwa Municipality, as reconstituted under the Act of 1903, had a population of over 19,000 persons. The Municipal Committee had 18 members, of whom 12 were elected and 6 nominated. A notable reform was effected in 1918 when Deputy Commissioner was replaced by non-official Chairman for the first time in the history of Khandwa Municipality. The Municipality, reconstituted in 1925 under the Act of 1922, was composed of 17 elected, 4 nominated, 4 co-opted members and President, elected by the members, and 2 Vice-Presidents appointed by the President. The population of the town according to the Census of 1921 was 26,802. The limits of the Municipality were extended in September 1926. Affairs of the Khandwa Municipality were very well managed during that period, for the then Deputy Commissioner of Nimar has recorded great appreciation of its achievements in his annual reports to the Government. The term of the Committee was three years till 1939 when it was extended to five years.

There was no change in the composition of the Municipality till the year 1942 when single-member constituencies were created. The number of members then went up to 29, of whom 21 were elected from as many wards, 6 members were selected and 2 Vice-Presidents were appointed by the President. The system

of indirect election of President was changed to direct one from 1947. Later, in 1958, the system of indirect election of President was reintroduced. After the elections of May 1956, the strength of municipal members was 39. Of these 29 were elected and 7 selected members besides 1 elected President and 2 nominated Vice-Presidents. The population of the town was 51,940 in 1951. It increased to 63,505 as per Census of 1961. Under the Madhya Pradesh Municipalities Act, 1961, which came into force on the 1st February 1962, elections were held in Khandwa in October, 1964. The newly constituted Khandwa Municipality has 37 members of whom 29 are elected and 7 selected members and a President. Two Vice-Presidents have been elected by members from amongst themselves.

Burhanpur Municipality

Burhanpur Municipality was reconstituted under the Act of 1903. It had a population of over 33,000 people and was composed of 16 members, of whom 15 were elected and 1 nominated. The strength was increased in 1912 to 21, out of which 16 were elected and 5 were nominated. The presidential chair was then occupied by a Government official generally the Sub-Divisional Officer, Burhanpur. Vice-President was appointed from non-official members.

Municipalities Act of 1922 abolished the system of appointing an official as the President. By the same Act the principle of selection was introduced and Burhanpur Municipality was given the right to select two members. Reconstituted under the Act of 1922, it consisted of 26 members, of whom 18 were elected, 4 nominated and 4 selected or co-opted members. The year 1939 witnessed the abolition of the system of nominations. The Committee since then began to be constituted of elected and selected members besides President and two Vice-Presidents.

In 1950, the Municipal Committee consisted of 31 members, of whom 22 were elected, 6 selected, 1 president was elected and two Vice-Presidents were appointed. The total membership increased to 41 in 1960. Besides the elected President, it comprised 30 elected, 8 selected and 2 appointed Vice-Presidents. Office of the President witnessed the same changes experienced by that of Khandwa Municipality.

With the march of time and development of industries population of the town went on increasing. It has nearly doubled in the last two decades from 44,066 in 1941 to 82,101 in 1961. The increase in population necessitated extension of the municipal limits. Earlier in 1912 a change was effected in the limits of the municipal area by extending the limits from the fort-wall to the Railway Station. In 1952, the municipal limits were again extended to Khunibhandara, Chintaharan and Mulbhandara. But as this extension proved insufficient, the Committee has further resolved to extend the existing area by including some of the adjacent villages, e.g. Zainabad, Bahadurpur, Loni and Sahadara. At present, area of the town measures 5¼ sq. miles, including Lalbagh. With effect from the 4th May,

1965, one ward has been reserved for Scheduled Castes. The number of elected members has thus increased to 31 from as many wards.

Financial Resources

From the beginning of the present Century financial resources of the municipalities included octroi, taxes on houses and lands, taxes on professions and trades, water-rate, conservancy, vehicle tax and rates and fees from markets, pounds and slaughter houses, etc. Khandwa Municipality added house tax to its source from 1911-12, which it continued to realise till 1924-25. It was again imposed in 1947 and brought Rs. 65,000 to the municipal coffers in the following year. Similarly, in place of octroi, terminal tax was levied at Khandwa from 1st January, 1923 and continued till 1956-57, when it was again replaced by octroi. Burhanpur Municipality also levied terminal tax, instead of octroi, in 1928, and as in case of Khandwa was replaced in 1946 by octroi once again. In addition to all other taxes, Burhanpur realises ginning and pressing tax. Both the municipalities draw their income mostly from octroi.

Income and expenditure of the municipalities have, during the course of nearly half a century, registered spectuacular rise as is evident from the Table given below.—

Year	Khandwa Municipality		Burhanpur Municipality	
	Income	Expenditure	Income	Expenditure
1907-08	1,08,197	1,14,231	69,332	64,593
1917-18	1,23,450	1,36,432	1,07,845	1,14,831
1927-28	2,13,945	2,04,178	2,38,902	2,11,449
1937-38	2,06,236	2,15,961	2,11,007	2,06,501
1947-48	4,76,347	4,38,969	5,56,321	5,33,227
1957-58	13,07,948	13,44,235	14,81,401	12,42,843
1958-59	15,42,148	17,09,610	9,02,408	7,36,193
1959-60	16,85,419	16,54,512	12,11,126	14,93,106
1960-61	20,68,396	20,91,317	14,86,670	14,98,092
1961-62	15,80,152	16,10,525	18,06,958	16,63,643
1962-63	19,41,232	18,61,427	18,57,279	17,51,501
1963-64	15 85,756	16,32,541	16,71,068	15,01,056

The municipalities of the District are providing civic amenities to the people. Important among them are education, watersupply, public health conservancy, street lighting and registration of births and deaths.

Education

In the sphere of education both Khandwa and Burhanpur Municipalities have made remarkable progress. Compulsory Primary education was introduced in Khandwa in 1930, and an expenditure of about Rs. 57,000 was incurred on this head. It increased to over Rs. 75,000 the following year, when it was maintaining 10 primary schools and one A.V.M, School, and was giving grant to two private

girls schools. Khandwa Municipality was spending about 37 per cent of its revenue on education in 1937-38, which was too high a proportion with regard to the primary functions which a municipality ought to perform. The compulsory education was introduced in the town on the assurance of the Government to bear half the cost but in spite of the repeated requests from the Municipality, there was no response from the Government. The picture will be clear from the fact that in 1940-41 the Government was meeting only one seventh of the expenditure, which the Municipality was incurring on education. It must redound to the credit of Khandwa Municipality which continued to forge ahead with its scheme of compulsory primary education in spite of tremendous drain on its resources. It also opened one Industrial Training School in 1939. In the year 1962-63 Khandwa Municipality was managing 32 primary and one higher secondary school and was spending Rs. 4,38,292, on them, as compared to Rs. 1,23,188 in 1947-48. The higher secondary school was taken over by the Government in 1963-64.

Burhanpur Municipality did not lag behind in making its contribution for the progress of education. It is managing a high school, one of the biggest in the Central Provinces, since 1914 and was spending, in 1933-34 one third of its income on education. In 1910 the Municipality was managing 7 primary schools which increased to 21 in 1950, and to 46 in 1960. It is also managing a middle school since 1910. In addition, the Municipality opened a Weaving School in the town for the instruction of local weavers in the use of improved handlooms. Expenditure on this head has also increased manifold in the post-Independence period. It was Rs. 1,39,197 in 1947-48 which increased to Rs. 4,21,919 in 1960-61. It declined to Rs 2,87,857 in 1963-64 owing to the transfer of services of teachers from municipality to the Government. The high school, later converted into higher secondary, that was under its management, was taken over by the Government in 1963-64. Compulsory primary education could be introduced in Burhanpur only in 1953.

Street Lighting

Khandwa and Burhanpur Municipalities have been maintaining street lights for the last several decades. In 1922, electric lights were provided in Khandwa town on almost all the main roads, while side-lanes continued to be lighted by oil-lamps. The use of oil-lamps for street lighting was completely abolished in 1958, and now practically all the localities of the town are provided with electric lights, totalling 903

In Burhanpur, the Municipality received electric supply for street lighting, in 1931. Khandwa and Burhanpur Municipalities, which spent Rs. 15,156 and Rs. 18,105 in 1947-48, incurred an expenditure of Rs. 40,140 and Rs 41,805 in 1960-61.

Public Health

The municipalities are responsible for making necessary provision for the maintenance of public health and establishment of dispensaries. Burhanpur

Municipality was maintaining a hospital separately for males and females and one T. B. Clinic which were taken over by the Government in 1956. Khandwa and Burhanpur had two and one child welfare centres, respectively, since 1933-34. Besides, both the municipalities carried on vaccination in towns and appointed vaccinators for this purpose. They also arranged for quarantine and medicinal facilities in case of epidemics. Khandwa and Burhanpur Municipalities spent Rs. 3,29,296 and Rs. 1,56,100, respectively, on this head in 1963-64.

Water Supply

The supply of pure and adequate quantity of water to the people is one of the primary responsibilities of the municipalities. Present sources of water supply in Khandwa town are Moghat reservoir constructed in 1897 at a cost of Rs. 4 lakhs, Barud Nalla, Rameshwar Well and Bhairo Tank. Though tapped to their fullest capacity, they are insufficient to supply the requisite quantity of water To meet the scarcity partly, electric pumps have been installed in a number of other wells. As a permanent solution to this problem, the Municipality has undertaken a new Water-Works Scheme at the instance of the Public Health Engineering Department of the State Government. The first phase of the Scheme, costing Rs. 7,65,000, is under execution.

Burhanpur town gets supply of water from old water sources, constructed by the Mughals in the middle of the 17th Century and from Mubarak Pura Well, constructed in 1925, Satiyapara Well, New Cotton Market Well and Lalbagh Karanja. Of these, the first two sources serve the major portion of the town. The daily supply of water from all these sources is about 15 lakh gallons. But these sources do not satisfy the needs of the present population. Consequently, the Municipality has undertaken a new Water-Works Scheme, prepared by the Public Health Engineering Department of the State Government, costing Rs. 27,53,750 The Scheme has been divided into two phases. The first phase, costing about Rs. 5 lakhs, and having a capacity of supplying 3 lakh gallons of water per day has already been completed. On completion of the second phase, supply of 30 gallons of water per head per day, to a population of 1,50,000, is expected.

Expenditure on water supply for a few selected years is given below.—

Year	Khandwa Rs.	Burhanpur Rs.
1901	4,945	3,245
1920-21	57,390	21,412
1940-41	13,174	16,819
1950-51	36,495	1,02,265
1960-61	5,73,171	1,01,192
1961-62	3,09,327	1,34,409

Conservancy

The municipalities of East Nimar District do not have either sewarage system or underground drainage. In Burhanpur sewage is disposed off in making compost which on auctioning fetches between Rs. 60,000 and Rs. 70,000. In Khandwa, unhealthy practice of carrying night soil in buckets was stopped and replaced by hand carts. A drainage scheme, costing about Rs. 3,32,000, was approved by the Government for Khandwa town and a grant of Rs. 1,32,000 was sanctioned for the purpose. Work on it commenced in 1922, but the grant was somehow withdrawn. Later, in 1934-35, drainage scheme was implemented by the Municipality, under which two main drains, Gulgulli Nalla and Budhawara Nalla of Khandwa town, which used to be *kutcha* from the beginning, were made *pucka*. Besides, supplementary drains running into these Nullahs were also laid.

Burhanpur Municipality is executing a Slum Clearance Scheme, amounting to Rs. 1,46,200, in Niyamatpura Ward. It is maintaining 28 public latrines with 477 seats and 22 public urinals. In addition, 20 seated septic-tank latrine was recently constructed. Khandwa and Burhanpur Municipalities spent Rs. 76,056 and Rs. 3,61,215 respectively in 1961-62 on conservancy.

Achievements

There are some notable constructions, undertaken after 1946, to the credit of the Burhanpur Municipality. In the first instance shops were constructed at Mandi, Azad Bazar, Chowk, Lalbagh and Bajaj Khana. These shops have been rented out and as a result are proving a good source of revenue to the Municipality. It also constructed 5 school buildings, laid 3 public parks. constructed 15 public latrines and about 32,000 feet long drains and installed 190 new public watersupply posts. Besides, 67 residential quarters have been completed for sweepers and a new spacious motor stand is under construction.

Khandwa Municipality also constructed shops in Grain Market and Sindhi Market at a cost of Rs. 1,08,601. Besides, it constructed Gandhi Bhawan, costing Rs. 1,00,000, Bal-Niketan costing about Rs. 20.000, and made additions in Manikya Vachnalaya at a cost of Rs. 20,000.

JANAPADA SABHAS

As stated earlier, the Central Provinces and Berar Local Government Act, 1948, was passed to give effect to the scheme of decentralisation of administration. As a result, the District Council and Local Boards were abolished and three Janapada Sabhas, one each at tahsil level were established in the District in August, 1948 at Khandwa, Burhanpur and Harsud. In the beginning the members of the Sabhas were nominated by the Government. Their number in Khandwa, Burhanpur and Harsud was 27,25 and 22, respectively, including the Chairman and Deputy Chairman. These nominated bodies continued to function till 1953. In December, 1953, elections were held for the first time to all the three Janapada

Sabhas. The position of the Janapada Sabhas, after reconstitution, is shown below.—

Name	Population	Area in sq. miles	Members		
			Elected	Selected	Total
Khandwa Janapada	2,44,311	1,871	24	7	31
Burhanpur "	1,76,410	1,138	21	7	28
Harsud "	1,02,775	1,218	20	8	28

The councillors of each Janapada Sabha include a Scheduled Caste member, elected by the elected councillors and those Chairmen of the Standing Committees who are elected from outside the body. The elected members of the Sabhas, in the Table above, include all such members also. Elected members for Khandwa and Burhanpur include four and three representatives of the respective municipalities.

A Janapada area is generally divided into urban and rural circles The urban areas consist of municipal and notified areas. In East Nimar District, however, Harsud Janapada area is purely rural circle, there being no municipal body in the Tahsil. The membership of the Sabha is of two categories—elected and selected. Elected members again are of two kinds, those representing rural circles and other representing urban circles. From rural circles, members are elected directly from the constituencies while in urban circles they are elected by the elected members of the municipal bodies. There is a provision in the Act according to which elected members have to select one Harijan or Scheduled tribe member if the same is not included amongst the elected members. The life of the Sabha is for 5 years. The Chairman and the Deputy Chairman, who are elected by the councillors from amongst themselves or from outside, hold office for the duration of the Sabha.

Each Janapada Sabha, till the year 1952, consisted of six Standing Committees. On the recommendations of the Janapada Enquiry Committee, Madhya Pradesh (1952), the State Government introduced in the constitution of Janapada Sabha an Administrative Committee, consisting of one-third members of the Sabha, excluding the Chairman and the Deputy Chairman of the Sabha. The Chairman and the Deputy Chairman of the Janapada Sabha were to be the Chairman and Vice-Chairman of the Administrative Committee When the Administrative Committees were formed in each of the three Janapadas, Development Standing Committees were abolished. Thus the three Sabhas of the District function through six Standing Committees, one each for finance, public works, education, public health, agriculture and administration.

The Sub-Divisional Officers of Khandwa, Burhanpur and Harsud act as the Chief Executive Officers of the respective Sabhas. They are the ex-officio

secretaries of every Standing Committee of the Sabha. Tahsildars function as Deputy Chief Executive Officers.

Functions

The functions allotted to the Janapada Sabhas cover a wide range of subjects and include all measures likely to promote health, comfort, education and convenience of the people living in the rural areas. The functions performed by the Sabhas can be divided into two categories, compulsory and optional or discretionary. The compulsory duties comprise, among others, establishment and management of rural schools, hospitals, dispensaries, registration of births and deaths, management of cattle-pounds and ferries etc.

Discretionary duties mainly include management of fairs, agricultural shows, industrial exhibitions, sanitation, development of cottage industries, etc. Besides, the Act empowers the Government to entrust to the Sabhas certain other functions.

Financial Resources

The Janapada Sabhas have, under the Act of 1948, more sources of revenue than the former District Council. According to the Act the income of the Janapada Sabhas comes mainly from rates (cesses), taxes, and fees of various kinds and Government grants. The Sabhas have also been empowered to impose any tax with the sanction of the Government.

On the recommendation of the Janapada Enquiry Committee the Government decided to abolish additional cess and raise the rate of compulsory cess. In respect of education grants it was decided that 75 per cent of the approved expenditure on primary education should be met by Government. In backward areas this percentage would be upto 90 per cent. The Government also decided that the Janapada Sabha should be given a share of land revenue at 5 per cent of the annual demand in each year. Since 1st October, 1963 services of teachers of the schools run by the Sabhas have been transferred to the Government.

The financial position of the Janapada Sabhas in or few selected years is given below.—

(in Rs.)

Name of the Janapada Sabha		1948-49	1962-63	1963-64
Khandwa	Income	2,54,949	11,77,474	7,13,250
	Expenditure	2,28,879	10,45,246	7,08,677
Burhanpur	Income	2,07,798	8,18,545	5,31,634
	Expenditure	1,99,681	6,69,017	5,22,000
Harsud	Income	62,015	5,88,349	4,09,051
	Expenditure	60,375	5,76,137	3,68,844

Of the various functions which the Sabhas perform, those relating to education, medical and public health, veterinary services and public works are most important.

Education

There has been remarkable progress in the sphere of education during the period of the Sabhas' existence. Khandwa Janapada Sabha, which was managing only 83 primary and 2 middle schools in 1948-49, was maintaining 198 primary and 9 middle schools in 1961-62. Burhanpur Janapada Sabha which was looking after 62 primary and 3 middle schools in 1949-50, was managing 132 primary and 7 middle schools in 1961-62. It was also running a high school from 1958 which was handed over to the Government in 1961-62. Similarly, in Harsud Janapada area the number rose from 26 primary schools in 1948-49 to 130 primary and 8 middle schools, with 8,000 students, in 1961-62.

The rise in the number of educational institutions, managed by the Sabhas, was reflected in the corresponding increase in the expenditure on education.

The following Table gives an idea of this rise.—

(in Rs.)

Year	Khandwa	Burhanpur	Harsud
1949-50	1,00,079	60,642	36,990
1955-56	2,40,227	1,81,938	1,06,535
1956-57	2,66,959	2,16,447	1,46,630
1957-58	2,94,363	2,20,330	1,73,630
1958-59	3,37,113	2.54,242	1,61,480
1959-60	3,92,001	2,67,647	1,77,980
1960-61	4,49,046	2 93,861	2,35,205
1961-62	4,90,634	—	2,57,325

Medical and Public Health

The main activities under this head are management of Ayurvedic dispensaries, provision and purification of drinking water, measures for prevention of epidemics, building of new wells, vaccination and inoculation. Khandwa, Burhanpur and Harsud Janapada Sabhas were maintaining 9,4 and 3 Allopathic dispensaries respectively, till 1st August, 1958 when they were transferred to the State Government due to provincialisation of hospitals. They were, however, looking after Ayurvedic dispensaries and their number in 1962 was 3,4 and 7 in Khandwa, Burhanpur and Harsud, respectively. One child welfare centre was started at Mandhata by Khandwa Janapada Sabha in 1957 and for vaccination purposes the Sabha appointed four trained vaccinators. Each Sabha was also maintaining a number of public wells.

The expenditure on this head recorded remarkable increase during the last 14 years. In 1948-49 Khandwa and Harsud Janapadas were spending

Rs. 7,606 and Rs. 5,690 which rose to Rs. 23,467 and Rs. 15,035 in 1960-61. Similarly, in Burhanpur, the expenditure figure rose from Rs. 9,390 in 1950 to Rs. 20,475 in 1960-61.

Veterinary

There is one full-fledged veterinary dispensary and one outlying dispensary under the management of Khandwa Sabha. Another dispensary at Khandwa proper was transferred to the Municipality in 1954. It was spending Rs. 7,130 on this item in 1961-62. Harsud Sabha was also maintaining a veterinary dispensary at Harsud and three outlying dispensaries aided by the Government, and had spent Rs. 10,340 on them in 1960-1961.

Public Works

The Janapada Sabhas play an important part in the development of rural communication and construction of buildings for Panchayat *Bhawans*, schools and dispensaries. They also undertake construction and repair of wells and tanks. Khandwa Janapada Sabha was entrusted with the maintenance of transferred works since the abolition of Nimar District Council. There was a public works fund which was being utilized for their maintenance. Excess expenditure was shared by the three Janapada Sabhas. The expenditure for 1960-61 by Khandwa Janapada was Rs. 43,917, by Burhanpur Sabha Rs. 27,816 and by Harsud Sabha Rs. 12,100. The remaining transferred works would be handed over to Government shortly.

VILLAGE PANCHAYATS

The Act of 1920 was replaced by the Central Provinces and Berar Panchayats Act, 1946, which came into force on the 28th February, 1947. Under the Act, the formation of Panchayats was divided up into three stages. In the first stage they were established in villages with a population upto 1,000, in the second stage with a population of 500 to 1,000 and in the third stage they were organized in the villages of less than 500 population. Thus by the end of 1962, 433 Gram Panchayats were established covering every village in the District. Of these, 197 were in Khandwa Tahsil, 129 in Harsud and 107 in Burhanpur Tahsil. In the year 1948-49 the number of Gram Panchayats in the District stood at 112. In the following year there was reduction by 5 in the total number of panchayats on account of transfer of some villages to Madhya Bharat as a result of territorial adjustments.

In the first instance panchayats were formed by nomination and the *Sarpanchas* were also nominated by Government for a term of three years, after which elections were held. Elections to panchayat are held on the basis of adult franchise and by secret ballet. The number of *Panchas* ranges from 5 to 15. The Patel of the village is appointed a member of the Gram Panchayat by virtue of his office. He is in addition to the sanctioned strength of the *Panchas*. A Gram Panchayat elects its *Sarpanch* from amongst its own members or from amongst

the residents of the village. The Deputy *Sarpanch* is nominated by the *Sarpanch* from amongst the members of the village panchayat or from the residents of the village. The term of office of a panchayat is five years.

Under the old Act, the functions of the village panchayats were limited to village sanitation and dealing with petty judicial cases. Under the Act of 1946, panchayats were entrusted with administrative, development, welfare and municipal functions, which were divided under two heads, compulsory and optional. The compulsory functions are medical, first-aid, registration of births, deaths and marriages, supply of water, sanitation, construction and maintenance of roads in the village, etc., while the optional functions are improvement in agriculture and livestock, promotion of education, encouragement of cottage industries, street lighting and development of co-operative movement etc.

Financial Resources

The sources of income of the village panchayats in the District include a compulsory cess on land revenue at the rate of 6 pies per rupee, house tax, professional tax and licence fee for practising as broker within the panchayat area. In addition, there are a few other optional taxes, e.g., light tax, animal tax, toll on vehicles, water rate, conservancy tax, etc., which are levied in the District. The Government also granted 5 per cent of the revenue from a village or villages to the respective panchayat.

The income of the panchayats has grown manifold in the course of a decade as shown below:—

Year	Income Rs.
1953-54	85,833
1954-55	1,17,010
1955-56	1,15,841
1956-57	2,88,438
1957-58	3,35,966
1958-59	3,92,551
1959-60	4,02,281
1960-61	5,20,652
1962-63	7,52,580
1963-64	8,75,963

The village panchayats of the District have carried on considerable development activities and spent over Rs. 3 lakhs on them between 1954 and 1961-62. Of this amount, 50 per cent was contributed by the Government. The panchayats have during this period constructed 197 school buildings, 183 panchayat *bhawans*, 793 wells, 20 tanks, 13 *dharmashalas*, 1,847 latrines and 750 miles of village roads. During the same period over 12,000 soakage pits were prepared for village

sanitation and over 8,000 compost pits were laid with a view to augmenting agricultural production.

Under the Central Provinces and Berar Panchayats Act, 1946 Nyaya Panchayats were also constituted, one each for a group of villages. Nyaya Panchayats consisted of at least five members. Till the year 1962 there was no change in this number.

The Nyaya Panchayats are purely judicial bodies invested with powers to try minor offences and settle disputes of ordinary nature. They are meant to render justice cheap, simple and expeditious in the rural areas.

Panchayati Raj

It was vitally important to integrate the various laws pertaining to these rural Local bodies and to achieve uniformity in the pattern of rural local self-government institutions throughout the State. The State Government, therefore, appointed a committee in July, 1957 to go into the questions of rural local self-government. As a result, the Madhya Pradesh Panchayats Act, 1962, (VII of 1962) was passed embodying the recommendations of this Committee.

The new Act envisages three-tier system of panchayats, the Gram Panchayat at the village level, the Janapada Panchayat at the Development Block level and the Zila Panchayat at the district level.

Gram Panchayats

A Gram Panchayat is to consist of 10 or more elected members and such number of co-opted or appointed members as may ensure at least two seats to women, due representation to the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes and to the co-operative societies in the Gram Sabha area. Every Gram Panchayat shall consitute 7 functional committees on agriculture, education, social welfare, taxation and finance, communication and works, co-operation and industries and for general work.

Janapada Panchayat

The Janapada Panchayat is to be the main administrative and executive body at the Block level. It will formulate programmes, raise resources and approve schemes. Every Janapada Panchayat shall consist of from 15 to 30 elected and co-opted members. Besides the elected members, it shall be composed of one representative of the Co-operative Marketing Society or Co-operative Union, one representative each of the corporation, municipality or the notified area committee within the Block and all members of the State Legislative Assembly, returned from the constituencies which wholly or partly fall within the Block. There is a provision for co-option of two women and representatives of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, if the same are not included among the elected members. Each Janapada Panchayat shall constitute from amongst its own members, seven Standing Committees on the subjects enumerated under Gram

Panchayats. Every Janapada Panchayat shall have a Chief Executive Officer appointed by the State Government.

Zila Panchayat

At the apex of the panchayat system in a district shall be the Zila Panchayat. It shall be a body corporate, composed of Presidents of Janapada Panchayats within a district, all members of the Lok Sabha, representing Parliamentary Constitutiencies which either wholly or partly form part of a district; all members of the Rajya Sabha returned from the State of Madhya Pradesh and ordinarily residing in a district, all members of State Legislative Assembly, representing constituencies which wholly or partly form part of a district; and district officers representing the development departments in a district. If the Zila Panchayat does not include a woman, members of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and a representative of co-operative societies, such persons shall be co-opted. The Zila Panchayat shall elect its own Chairman and Vice-Chairman, and shall constitute five Standing Committees on planning and community development, co-operation, industries, education and social welfare and finance.

The main functions of a Zila Panchayat are supervision and guidance of the working of Janapada and Gram Panchayats and advising Government in matters relating to all their activities in general and development activities in particular within its jurisdiction.

The duration of Gram, Janapada and Zila Panchayats is five years. Elections to the Gram Panchayats of the District were held, under the new Act, in May, 1966. In all, 255 Gram Panchayats have been formed in East Nimar District. Of these 122 are in Khandwa, 66 in Burhanpur and 67 in Harsud Tahsils. As there are nine Community Development Blocks in the District, nine Janapada Panchayats are to be organised. The Janapada and the Zila Panchayats have, however, yet to be formed in the District.

Nyaya Panchayats

Details regarding the Nyaya Panchayats have been given in the Chapter on Law and Order and Justice.

CHAPTER XV

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

The distinctive features of Hindu thought, which has been moulded and shaped more by the religious than political or economic influences during the course of its history, virtually dominated every aspect of Hindu life. It is no where more manifest than in the domain of learning and education. "Through ages, it has been prized and pursued, not for its own sake, but for the sake, and as a part, of religion." Thus followed the rich heritage of culture and literature in India.

It is difficult for want of positive information to assess the contribution of East Nimar, particularly, towards the vast and varied literature, and rich cultural trad prevailing during the ancient and medieval periods. The period in be-· een till the history of educational system start, offers a scope for mere surmise or conjecture. The banks of the holy Nermada, which sweeps the northern part of the District, would have sheltered learned sages, who with their *ashrams* filled with the incensed burning and vedic chants would have provided a seat of learning in the area too. Later, the religious pedagogues would have kept the flame of learning ablaze down to the era of education as we understand it now. The literature, both of Hindus and Jains composed in the early periods, discloses the existence of hermitages of mighty sages in this locality.[1] The celebrated saints and thinkers visited the region to enlighten the people. The "inscriptions dating from A.D. 1132 to 1263 mark the period at which" Jainism "was probably in its glory in Nimar."[2] Though, "all records have perished save the scanty but impressive traces to be recognised in ruins, the images, the carvings, found frequently in spots now the most desolate, or extracted from caves, or exhumed from the earth ......which cannot lie, attest an era of art and civilization."[3] As the tradition goes, the temples used to be not only the places of worship, but of learning too. The District has particularly rich remains of old Jain temples at Harsud, Khandwa, etc. Amreshwar at Mandhata, was the deity of Paramar kings of Dhar who visited it for worship and honoured Brahmans with donation, etc.[4] The ruins of Siddheshwar Siva temple bear a testimony of most elaborate and skilful carvings and sclupture. Captain Forsyth conjectured that a sculptor's workshop existed nearby.[5]

1. Mahabharat Van Parvan : Vishnupuran Ch., VI to VIII, Ed., by Dr. Willson : Harivamsh Puran by Jinasena.
2. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p. 18
3. Report on the District of Nimar, 1864, p. 5.
4. Hiralal, Inscriptions in the C.P. and Berar, pp. 74-77,
5. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p. 20

Since ages, Nimar was an integral part of the Malwa kingdom, and Khandwa has been a place of considerable antiquity owing to its situation at the junction of the two great trade routes, providing vital link between the south and the north. In the medieval period, Burhanpur had been the seat of viceroyalty of the Deccan, and for sometime, of the Royal court too. The literary and cultural traditions, the floral paintings in the bathing apartment of the queens, remains of the temples and massive mosques, and industrial and commercial importance of Burhanpur highlighted the medieval period when Mughals ruled over the region. The literature of the period mostly reflects the cult of *Bhakti* or devotion, and also bears an influence of Sufism.

During the 19th Century, the region was devastated by the armies of the ruling chiefs, and "at various times Nimar was rifled and ransacked from end to end" by the Pindaris, at whose hands, Nimar "suffered more permanent injury."[1] Owing to these turmoils the literary traditions of Nimar lapsed into oblivion during this period.

Beginning of Western Education

After 1823, when the area passed over to the British management under Agent at Indore, till 1846 A.D., no concrete steps were taken to accelerate the pace of popular education in the District.[2] The Government entered the field only in that year, when teachers were brought from Deccan and books procured and printed. It was not till the 'Sixties of the last Century that we witness the introduction of English education, and girls' education too, on popular demand. Two anglo-vernacular schools in Khandwa and Burhanpur towns existed in 1866-67. The expenses on these schools were to be met from public subscription and a matching grants-in-aid from the Government

Organisational Set-up

In 1823, and later after two years, most of the area comprising now the District of East Nimar was made over by Sindhias to British for management under Agent at Indore. Education too, seems to have been a charge of the Agent. In about 1846 the area came under the North Western Provinces, after which the Government interest in the administration of education manifested itself. Nimar Agency got its first Inspector of Schools in 1859, with headquarters at Mandleshwar. Later, after the transference of the District to the Central Provinces in 1864, the organisation of education in the District was merged into the set-up of the Province as a whole, under the administrative control of the Director of Public Instructions. His designation was changed later after seven years to Inspector General of Education which, after the turn of the century (1901-02), was again restored to the former designation. All the primary and lower middle class schools were managed by the Deputy Commissioner, aided by the District Inspector of Schools. High schools and zila schools were exclusively

1. Report on the District of Nimar, 1864, p. 10.
2. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p. 225.

under the control of Education Department. For the purposes of administration, the Province was divided into three circles, *viz.*, northern, southern and eastern circle. In 1874-75, the schools of the area came under the northern circle from southern circle. Apart from these, extra-departmental agencies were also conttrolling education, *viz.*, Municipal Committees, School Committees, etc. On the recommendations of the Standing Committee of Education in 1884-85, Government transferred the management of its rural schools to the care of the newly created District Councils. The three inspectoral circles later in 1904-05 were reorganised and instead five circles were formed, corresponding to the Commissioner's Division. On the creation of a new post of Deputy Director, the European schools of the District were also put in his charge. He was assisted by an Inspectress of Schools for European and English teaching schools. This system worked well till 1938 when the administrative machinery was reorganised. The post of Circle Inspectors was abolished and instead three Deputy Directors were appointed to assist the Director of Public Instructions. Each District got a District Inspector of Schools. But this arrangement adversely affected the inspection of high schools, etc As such, two years later the three posts of Deputy Directors were again abolished and instead four posts of Divisional Superintendent of Schools (now Divisional Superintendent of Education) were created, and Nimar schools came under Hoshangabad Division. Now there are nine educational Divisions and East Nimar is under the Divisional Superintendent of Education, Hoshangabad. He is the controlling, administrative and inspecting authority of Government high and higher secondary schools of the District, for both the boys' and girls' schools. However, for girls' education, Divisional Superintendent of Education is assisted by lady Assistant Divisional Superintendent. Under Divisional Superintendent works the District Education Officer, corresponding to the former District Inspector of Schools who is incharge of all schools upto middle standard. He is assisted by a number of Assistant District Inspectors of Schools, whose strength has been increasing with growing pressure of work. In 1958-59 they were 13 in number, later increased to 16, in 1961-62. In May, 1965 there were 21 Assistant District Inspectors of Schools in the District, including an Assistant Inspectress of Schools. They inspect and supervise primary schools of the District under the over-all supervision and guidance of District Education Officer, who inspects the middle schools.

In the early years of educational history there was no District machinery for the supervision and inspection of girls' schools. The year 1904-05 witnessed the creation of a post of an Inspectress of Schools at the Provincial level assisted by Assistant Inspectress of Schools at circle level. Later in 1945, four posts of Assistant Inspectress of Schools were abolished and instead six posts of District Inspectress of Schools were created. Till 1959-60, the high and higher secondary girls' schools were under the inspection and management of Inspectress of Schools, Jabalpur circle. In 1961-62, as stated earlier, the separate inspectoral office was abolished and a post of lady Assistant Divisional Superintendent of Education was created and attached to the Divisional headquarters. Prior to 1961-62 the girls' middle schools were under the control of District Inspectress of Schools,

Hoshangabad, and at the District level the girls' education was supervised by the Assistant Inspectress of Schools. Now, after the abolition of two separate wings, the post has been transferred under District Educational Officer, East Nimar.

The collegiate education of the District is administered by the Director of Collegiate Education, Madhya Pradesh, who is under the State Education Secretary

LITERACY AND EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS

Growth of Literacy

The conceptual changes relating to literacy, and jurisdictional changes of the District, which occured during the course of the Census history commencing from 1872, have rendered it difficult to compare the level of literacy over the period. However, it is possible to establish a trend in literacy from the educational activities. The test for being considered literate, devised in 1961 Census was · "the ability to read any simple letter, either in print or in manuscript, and ability to write a simple letter."

The growth of literacy, since 1872 in traced as under.---

Year	Total literate population	Learning and literate population			
		Males	Percentage to male population	Females	Percentage to female population
1872	9,032	8,824	7.85	208	0.2
1881	13,470	13,227	10 9	243	0.2
1891	15,108	14,800	11 3	308	0.2
1901	19,367	18,827	11.2	540	0 3
1911	21,718	20,885	10 4	833	0 4
1921	24,708	22,869	11.1	1,839	1.0
1931	36,271	33,374	13.8	2,897	1.3
1941	61,250	54,343	20.6	6,907	2.8
1951	83,617	66,066	24 6	17,551	6.9
1961	1,68,039	1,29,330	36.6	38,709	11.7

Till the year 1901, Nimar retained its first place among the then British districts of the Central Provinces in respect of literacy among the males. But the position could not be maintained thereafter, owing to slackened pace of educational activities in the District, experienced during the closing decade of the last Century. This slackness further increased with the visitation of plague, and the invasion of the District by a large number of illiterate colonists"[1] in subsequent period. The leading position once lost could not be regained for long, though the literacy made considerable progress in the District during 1911 to 1941 The advancement of literacy among the males had its favourable reaction

1. Census of India, 1911, C.P. and Berar, Pt. I, p. 175.

on the females too. It was found in 1891 that the District ranked among the leading four districts of the Central Provinces, in which education had made any headway. But subsequently, in this field too the District lagged behind.

The progress of literacy during 1941-61 has been rather impressive. During these two decades there emerged a number of educational institutions of all kinds, imparting education to a considerably large number of students of both sexes. As a result, the District regained its lost position, to some extent, by 1961 when it stood eminently among the educationally advanced districts of the State. Indore, with 38.2 per cent literates headed the list, while East Nimar trailed with 24.5 per cent literate population.

The literacy percentage of males and females in rural and urban areas according to 1961 Census is given below.—

District	Literacy as a percentage to total population		
	Total	Male	Female
East Nimar Rural	18.09	29.55	6.02
Urban	46.65	60.33	31.56

It is interesting to analyse the literacy standards among the rural and urban population. The picture as obtaining in the last Census is given below.—

Educational Standard	Literate			Rural		Urban	
	Total	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Literate (without educational level)	131,368	99,839	31,529	68,394	13,853	31,445	17,676
Primary or junior basic	28,537	22,397	6,140	10,525	1,575	11,872	4,565
*Matriculation or higher secondary	6,824	5,939	885	1,563	118	4,376	767
Technical diploma not equal to degree	99	97	2	—	—	97	2
Non-technical diploma not equal to degree	43	41	2	—	—	41	2
University degree or post-graduate degree other than technical degree	828	718	110	—	—	718	110
Technical degree or diploma equal to postgraduate degree	340	299	41	—	—	299	41

Note:—*Matriculation or higher secondary in rural areas includes those passessing higher educational level also.

The majority of the literate population of the District consists of persons having education below middle standard. The presence of comparatively large number of degree-holders, may be due to the immigrant population engaged in service, etc. Higher education among the cultivators and labour class is negligible, while it is significant among the persons engaged in Commerce.

Spread of Education Among Girls

As has been stated earlier, the history of girls' education dates back to

1866-67 when four girls' schools existed in the District, pointing to its advent still earlier. Though no substantial progress could be made till the closing decade of the last Century, when the average attendance of girls stepped up to 137 from 62 in 1891-92, yet the District was much ahead of other districts of the Central Provinces, where no beginning was made till 1892-93. The Department of Education yielded to the popular demand in 1889-90, approving for the first time the practice of admitting girls into boys' schools; provided the school committees had no objection. It was also provided that when the strength of girls justify the establishment of separate schools, these should be started. The need for the simplification of curriculum for girls' education was increasingly felt, and in 1894-95 steps were taken towards this end, adding to it needle-work and singing too.

So far the girls' education was under the management of Local bodies. But the need was felt in 1902-03 for a proper control and supervision of these schools. It resulted in the provincialization of girls' schools, and the appointment of an Inspectress for the purpose, two years later. Another important step during this decade came in 1909-10, when grants-in-aid rules were revised in order to encourage other agencies to open girls' schools in the villages. Till 1905-06 the girls did not enter the secondary schools, when for the first time, average attendance of 87 girls was recorded. The results of earlier efforts, though not very encouraging, were mirrored in the first decade of the present Century, when five girls' schools existed in the District with the total strength of 259 scholars. Three of these were located at Burhanpur, while the remaining two being at Khandwa and Pandhana. The Methodist Mission School had then a training class for girls at Khandwa. By 1911 the literacy among the females advanced to 0.44 per cent of the female population against 0.21 per cent in 1872. Subsequent growth of literacy among the females, as traced earlier, was not very encouraging. A change in the policy was made in 1927-28 on the basis of the recommendations of the Female Education Committee. The responsibility for opening new vernacular girls' schools and their management, which were provincialized by the Government in 1902-03, was restored to the Local bodies, which were already looking after boys' education. Hereafter, we see a steady growth of girls' education under the control of District Council and two municipalities. The popular demand further asserted itself in the mid-'thirties, for the establishment of anglo-vernacular girls' schools at Khandwa and Burhanpur. Feeling the pulse, the Mission Vernacular Middle School also started optional English classes for girls. By 1940-41, the average daily attendance of girls in primary schools reached a record figure of 3,580, and 247 in the secondary schools.

The period after the Independence witnessed great strides being made under the various Plans towards the spread of female education, broadly on the lines recommended by the Government of India and National Council for girls' education. A State Council for women's education was set up, which, it is hoped, would enable the Government to arouse popular enthusiasm for girls' education. Deputy Director of Women's education was made Secretary of the State Council. Liberal grants to private agencies were given for the establishment of new schools. All

girls of Scheduled Castes and Tribes were given scholarships. As a result of these efforts, the number of girls in 43 primary schools of the District increased to 19,050; in 12 middle schools to 2,787, and in 5 higher secondary schools to 2,846 in 1963-64.

Spread of Education among Backward Classes and Tribes

According to 1961 Census, the population of Scheduled Castes and Tribes in the District was 61,226 and 54,043, respectively. Harsud Tahsil is predominantly a tribal tract. The praminent among the tribes are, Bhil Bhilala, Korku and Gond, whose unwillingness to send children to schools has mainly been responsible for the illiteracy among them. The Government interest marked the beginning when the Political Assistant in Nimar Agency, as an extra inducement, ordered mid-day meals to be given to the children. A ray of hope was seen when in response only 8 children of Gonds were attracted to the school. The poor response led the Political Assistant to realize that the inherent apathy of tribes towards education stems from their migratory character and shy nature. Thus he realised that "these people were to be taught in their jungles which they never left."[1]

It seems that the initial efforts to educate them were not successful, for in 1869 Captain Forsyth remarked that in all the aboriginal tribes were "observable more or less of the innate restlessness and absence of attachment to the soil, characteristic of most uncivilized races."[2]

In the year 1906, Khandwa witnessed the establishment of a Municipal school for Depressed class boys. But the subsequent years did not attest to any appreciable increase in their education. However, the staggeringly low level of literacy among the tribals compelled the Government to take a resolute step and a committee was, therefore, appointed in 1921 to enquire into the problem of education of these classes. Consequently, in 1922 provision was made by the Government to offer liberal grants to the private bodies, upto two-thirds of their annual expenditure for opening such schools. It was also provided that equal treatment should be meted out to them. The Government also increased the value and the number of scholarships reserved for them, and agreed to pay maintenance grant to hostels meant for housing these students only. Government also offered grants to Local bodies for the payment of rewards to the headmasters for such boys who passed Primary Certificate Examinations.

In 1930, the Provincial Government again investigated the position of Depressed Classes in regard to the availability of educational facilities for them. Though the position was none too happy, yet it was observed, that since "they have been receiving proper teaching......, their lot was found to be improving. However, the progress was said to be retarded due to the poverty of the classes and communalism of orthodox Hindus."[3]

1. Report on the Province of Nimar, 1855, p. 48.
2. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p. 245.
3. Census of India, 1931, C.P. and Berar p. 394.

For the promotion of education among the Depressed Classes, two primary schools, exclusively for them, were started in Burhanpur with 65 boys on the rolls. Later, in 1936-37 some schools in the forest areas were also started by the District Council. Since 1933-34 they were also exempted from the payment of any examination fees. All these measures bore fruits when the average enrolment between 1939-42 was recorded to be 542 and 58 students in primary and middle schools of District Council, respectively. During the same period the number of aboriginal boys on an average was 355 and 10, respectively. As such, education brought awakening among them towards their civil rights too, which gave rise to the movement for the removal of untouchability.

Though sporadic efforts were made so far for the gigantic task of promoting education among the backward people, yet it gathered momentum only after Independence. The Directive Principles of State Policy embodied in the Constitution laid down that the State shall promote with special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, and in particular, of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes, etc. Accordingly, the State Government started intensive campaign for the eradication of illiteracy among these sections, and as a consequence, launched various educational schemes. Important steps in this direction had been the introduction of State and Central scholarships covering all stages of their education, opening and maintenance of the institutions and hostels exclusively meant for them, reservation of seats in schools, and the like. Under the Backward Area Welfare Scheme, started in 1947, four schools in Harsud Tahsil, with a middle school at Khandwa, and two in Burhanpur Tahsil were started. These schools were later transferred to respective Janapada Sabhas.

Students of the Backward Classes and Tribes were awarded liberal scholarships through different departments. During the years 1948-49 to 1962-63, the Educational Officer, Khandwa awarded 318 stipends of the value of Rs. 46,293 to the students of Scheduled Castes, Tribes, and Other Backward Classes.

Apart form the Government Departments which took keen interest in educational activities, the Harijan Sewak Sangh and Vanvasi Sewa Mandal received grants for the propagation of education among these classes. The Mandal established in 1954, on cent per cent grants-in-aid basis, a middle school and a hostel to accommodate 30 students each, at Punasa in Khandwa Tahsil, and Deotalai in Burhanpur Tahsil. Five primary schools each in these tahsils were also established by the Mandal. In 1962 there were 50 Scheduled Tribes students in both these middle schools, and 303 tribal, 14 Harijan and 121 of other communities in these primary schools. The hostels accommodated 48 students who were given a stipend of Rs. 20 each.

The Janapada Sabhas and Municipalities were also contributing their mite towards the eradication of illiteracy among these people. The Councils granted sums to organisations, and awarded scholarships to the students. A number of schools were also opened by them for the purpose.

In 1963 the office of the District Organisor Tribal Welfare Department, was also opened at Khandwa to look after the welfare as also the educational expansion among these classes and tribes. In view of special difficulties in educational expansion in Scheduled Areas, the State Government have now entrusted the responsibilities of the same to the Tribal Welfare Department. As a result of these efforts the number of students increased from 1,842 in 1947 to 3,491 in 1956, and to 7,005 in 1961. Harsud Tahsil which is entirely a tribal area, had 206 schools of all types in 1963-64. Schools numbering 85 in Khandwa Tribal Block, apart from 114 in Khaknar Tribal Block, were managed by the Tribal Welfare Department. There are three hostels for tribal students also in the District.

GENERAL EDUCATION

The following Table shows the number of educational institutions at all stages and number of students during the year 1963-64.—

Category	No of Institutions		No. of Students	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Pre-Primary	27	—	824	—
Primary	649	43	42,939	19,050
Middle	53	12	7,163	2,787
Higher Secondary	25	5	7,830	2,846

Pre-Primary Schools

The year 1902-03 witnessed the introduction of infant classes in the primary schools of the District, and this may be said to be the beginning of pre-primary education, imparted in an old and customary fashion. Prior to it, Kindergarten System was introduced in a fair number of primary schools of the Central Provinces in the year 1889-90. In fact, pre-primary education in the modern sense is quite a recent innovation, and naturally it has developed mostly in the post-Independence period. It seeks to impart education in a play-way method to the infants between the ages of three to six years. In the year 1946-47 one Kindergarten school and six Balak-Mandirs existed in the District, imparting education to 65 children in the former and 225 in the latter type of schools. During the period of the First Plan, the District witnessed the establishment of four Balak-Mandirs, with a strength of 89 boys and 65 girls. By the end of the Second Plan period (1960-61), the number of Balak-Mandirs increased to nine, imparting education to 491 (289 boys and 202 girls) children.

Subsequently, private enterprise too showed great enthusiasm in the field of pre-primary education and as a result of which, in the first year of the Third Plan, the number of such schools increased to 19. During the Third Plan, further opening of these schools in the rural areas, and increasing grants-in-aid had been envisaged. As a result, in the years 1962-63 and 1963-64, the number of nursery schools increased to 27 in the District, while the number of students increased to 620 (321 boys and 299 girls) in 1962-63, and 824 (376 boys and 448 girls) in 1963-64. These were under the management of different agencies like the Govern-

ment Departments, the Janapada Sabhas and other private bodies. Of these, eight were in Khandwa Tahsil, four in Burhanpur Tahsil and the remaining 15 were in Harsud Tahsil.

Primary Education

As has been stated earlier, it was not before 1846 A.D., that we witness the Government interest in the field of primary education. Captain P. T. French, the then Political Assistant in Nimar, who was greatly in favour of extending education, especially vernacular education among the poor classes, started several village schools in the District, for which people freely subscribed large amounts. The flame was kept burning by his two successors. There was a great dearth of suitable books for the schools, so his successor Major Evans procured a lithographic press and a number of suitable books were printed for the school boys. In the year 1848-49, the number of such schools at the seven Pargana headquarters of the Nimar Agency (now included in the District) was 18 with a strength of 435 students and 19 teachers. Of these, eight schools with 259 boys were at Khandwa and four at Asir with 72 students. Government annually spent a large amount on these schools. A number of teachers were brought from the Deccan and books were also procured from Agra and the Deccan. Besides, it seems that there were also some indigenous schools in the Agency. In the village schools, elementary instructions in three R's were given, apart from elementary knowledge of history, geography, etc. The Government of the North Western Provinces appointed an Inspector of Schools in the Agency in the year 1859.

From 1859 to 1864, when the Agency was transferred to the administration of Central Provinces, the number of schools in the District increased by about 40 per cent and the number of pupils by about 100 per cent. The increase was partly owing to the acquisition of the town of Burhanpur and Parganas of Zainabad and Manjrod in 1860 from Sindhia. This points to an existence of many schools in these areas also.

C. P. Education System Introduced

After 1864, when the District was attached to the Central Provinces, the stream of education in Nimar. as it were, merged into the stream of educational development of the Province as a whole. In the year 1864-65 the District had one Zila school, six town schools and 13 village schools with an aggregate attendance of 975 pupils. The school situated at the headquarter town of the District was called Zila school Some indigenous private schools began to receive grants-in-aid on the basis of examination results, and as such, they became the subject of inspection by the officials of the Education Department.

Village schools were then partly supported by the voluntary contributions made by the people. Education was given in Gujarati, Urdu, Hindi and Marathi in these schools. In the beginning there was a dearth of school teachers in the District and as a result of which Education Department opened a Normal School at Khandwa in the year 1865-66. Later, after training 15 school teachers for town

and village schools it was closed down in the following year with the hope that Normal school at Nagpur would cater to the need of the District.

Subsequent years witnessed an increase in the number of aided, recognised and Government schools in the District. In the year 1866-67, the number of primary schools in the region was 86. Of these as many as 20 schools were at Burhanpur alone.[1] Captain Forsyth recorded in 1869 that a school exists after every 10 villages and one scholar among every 87 souls, "a result greatly above the average for Central Provinces and other parts of India."[2] The high average mental capacity of the people in the District, acknowledged by Captain Forsyth, seems to stem from two causes, *viz.*, first, the Nimari dialect then being the official language of the District, and second the presence of large non-agricultural population.

The educational policy of the Central Provinces became more purposive in respect of curricula to be adopted for primary and middle school education after its consolidation in 1872.[3] In schools which comprised mostly primary schools, the ratio of pupils to population was 1:60 in 1870-71 against 1:87 in 1866-67. In the year 1873-74 there were 109 Government and aided schools in the District, educating 3,876 students. It was observed that education in Nimar was most prized, and in the field of education the case of Nimar excited surprise.[4]

For further encouragement competition was introduced for the award of Primary Scholarships (Central) in 1885-86.[5] The growth of primary and middle school education in the District during the last quarter of the 19th Century may be seen in the following Table.—

Year	No. of Schools	No. of Students	Average of sq. miles to each school	Percentage of scholars to population
1874-75	102	3,751	32.0	1.77
1879-80	83	4,008	40.0	1.81
1884-85	87	4,758	38.3	2.06
1889-90	89	4,370	37.5	1.08
1894-95	122	5,728	27.5	2.25
1899-1900	106	5,233	31.6	2.06

It is evident from the above Table that though the number of schools declined from 102 in 1874-75 to 89 in 1889-90, owing to the caprice and uncertainty that always attend the private philanthropic efforts, yet the enrolment increased. During the period under review, two municipalities also showed interest, and started schools in their respective areas. A railway school for the

1. The Gazetteer of C P., 1868, pp. 338-339.
2. Nimar Settlement Report, 1868-69, p. 255.
3. C.P. Administration Report, 1872-73, p. 120.
4. Ibid, 1874-75, p. 112
5. Ibid, 1885-86, p. 71.

education of resident European employees' children also functioned at Khandwa during this period.

The steps for the encouragement of co-education were also taken for the first time in 1889-90.[1] The Education Department approved the practice of admitting girls into boys' schools. The curriculum for girls' school, which was hitherto the same as for boys was simplified after five years, and needle work and singing was introduced.[2]

The need for giving vocational bias to education was felt early in the Central Provinces. As such, we see the introduction of weaving and elementary agriculture in 1885-86 in the primary stages. Later, after four years it was resolved to introduce what was known as "the 'Slojd System', the principle of which was the teaching of trade not *quo*-trade but as a means of training the senses to accuracy, dexterity and sense of proportion."[3] A new scheme of Upper Primary Examination brought about new grouping of primary education into lower and upper vernacular and English. The new scheme necessitated the attachment of upper primary (4th vernacular) class to middle schools. Further, with the object of stimulating primary education, it was decided to impart a marketable value to the primary education by making it first, the test for admission into Government service for minor appointments, secondly, the condition for admission into anglo-vernacular schools, and thirdly, a test for awarding middle school scholarships and prizes in agriculture. A primary English school, which so far catered to the needs of the children of the European employees of the railways, stationed at Khandwa, was closed in 1899-1900, when it was transferred to Mhow. The distinctive position of the District in respect of education was maintained in the concluding decade of the last Century also Highest percentage of children at schools was recorded in the District.

The dawn of the 20th Century witnessed the introduction of tutorial system and half-time system under which the children of agriculturists were allowed to attend schools for only 3 hours a day in the morning. As a result of Educational Conference at Simla in 1901. the decision was taken to "abolish the Middle School Examination, and the result-grant and combined system; and to substitute an examination *in situ* for the present system of Primary School Examination."[4] Further, the girls' schools which were under the management of Local bodies were provincialized and a more practical bent to instruction in rural schools was attempted. Students were taught the "writing up of the village accountant's papers, to understand the village map, and the writing up of the village money-lender's books"[5] and elements of agricultural practice. By the beginning of the 'twenties, new grants-in-aid code was introduced to facilitate the opening of new

1. Ibid, 1889-90, p. 101.
2. Ibid, 1894-95, p. 85.
3. Ibid, 1889-90, p. 103.
4. Ibid, 1901-02, pp. 125-26.
5. Ibid, p. 125.

girls' and boys' primary schools in the villages and to encourage private agencies in that direction. In the concluding years of this decade education was transferred to the control of Legislative Council, which resulted in the quickening of public interest in educational matters. This was followed by the enactment of Primary Education Act in 1920,[1] which was replaced later by Madhya Pradesh Compulsory Primary Education Act, 1956.

Compulsory Primary-Education

A landmark in the history of primary education was the passing of a resolution by the Legislative Council in 1921,[2] requiring the preparation of a scheme for the expansion of primary education so as to introduce compulsion within 10 years, as envisaged in the Act. The Act was permissive and provided for the extension of Compulsory Primary Education by the Local Government on the application of the Local authority for that area. The Act was amended later on in 1928-29 to enable Local bodies to introduce compulsion by stages in the areas under their jurisdiction, and to empower Government to compel Local authorities to introduce Compulsory Primary Education, if Government thought it necessary.[3] But due to several reasons efforts to introduce compulsion did not meet with much success in this District. It was not till September, 1930, when we see the introduction of Compulsory Primary Education in 6 out of 7 wards of Khandwa Town. Presently, except for two wards, the entire town of Khandwa is covered. Earlier, Burhanpur Municipal Council had submitted a scheme for the introduction of compulsion in 1925-26 but later withdrew it, and it was not until 1953 that compulsion was extended in Burhanpur Town also. During 1956, 46 schools with a strength of 7,543 students, taught by 296 teachers were covered under the Compulsory Education Scheme. This was expanded to 66 schools in 1961 with an enrolment of 9,577 students, taught by 288 teachers. The expenses on compulsory education amounted to about Rs. 4.98 lakhs during 1961-62. In the later years of the Third Plan, the progress became slow and in November, 1963, compulsion covered only 69 schools with 11,378 students, taught by 381 teachers. The State Assembly in September, 1961, adopted Madhya Pradesh Primary Education Bill which envisaged the introduction of free and compulsory primary education for children in the State.

Following Table shows the growth of primary education in this District, from 1901-02 to 1946-47.—

Year	No. of Schools	Students — Average daily attendance	
		Boys	Girls
1901-02	96	3,069	291
1911-12	98	4,159	450
1921-22	133	5,250	435

1. Ibid, 1921-22, p. 54.
2. Ibid, p. XXIX.
3. C.P. Administration Report, 1928-29, pp. 72-73.

1931-32	148	7,621	887
1941-42	175	10,006	1,112
1946-47	170 (Boys)	9,281	—

The above Table reveals that till the year 1941-42, there was a continuous growth of education in the District, after which a slight set-back was noticed. During this period the number of schools increased by about 77.1 per cent, and students by 202.4 per cent (boys).

The post-Independence period, particularly the Plan periods, witnessed remarkable growth in primary education in the District. The number of schools increased by about 206.3 per cent, while the number of students increased by about 220 9 per cent between the period from 1947 to 1961. In the year 1946 there was one primary school for every nine villages, whereas in 1961 every two villages had a school. The progress of primary education, since 1947 is shown in the Table below.—

Year	No. of Schools		No. of Students		Expenditure
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	(Rs.)
1947	180	12	12,250	2,470	3,42,826
1951	287	14	16,697	5,355	4,30,307
1956	514	23	30,271	8,167	9,01,316
1961	557	31	38,333	12,112	14,67,213

Besides these primary schools of Education Department and Local bodies, there were a number of schools run by private agencies and Departments like Forest, Tribal Welfare, etc. In 1963-64 there were 692[1] schools of which 146 were Government, 439 Janapada, 78 Municipal and 29 Private schools. In 649 boys' schools and 43 girls' schools, there were 42,939 boys and 19,050 girls, respectively, taught by 1,699 teachers, of whom 1,384 were trained and 45 untrained.

After the formation of the new State of Madhya Pradesh, vigorous steps were taken in the field of education both for quantitative and qualitative progress. Primary education was reorganised and five years' primary course was introduced instead of four years', and a unified syllabus on the pattern of basic education was adopted through out the State in 1959. Gradual conversion of schools into basic type was aimed at. During the Second and Third Plans, a big drive was launched for the expansion of primary education. For every 500 population it was aimed to provide a school.

Junior Basic Education

In a sense, the history of basic education in the Central Provinces dates back to 1885-86 when we see for the first time the introduction of crafts in the primary stage curriculum. But it was in the 'thirties that educational horizon

1. These include Junior Basic and schools under Compulsion.

was poignant with growing assertion of self-supporting education. In 1937, the State Government introduced under Vidya Mandir Act, a scheme of starting Vidya Mandir schools in the State. Agriculture was mainly the basis of the Vidya Mandir school courses. In this District too, six Vidya Mandir schools were started with an allotment of an agricultural plot. These schools are still working and the management of the plots rests with the Agriculture Department. The resignation of Congress Ministry and subsequent political events arrested the growth of Vidya Mandir scheme. Again in 1954, on the recommendations of the Secondary Education Commission, and the committee appointed by the State Government on Financing of Education in Madhya Pradesh, it was resolved to introduce Basic Education. It seeks the medium of creative activity and correlates the academic subjects to different crafts, and to the social environment. Accordingly, in the first instance, 33 primary schools of the District were converted into Junior Basic type in 1955-56. Owing to the upgrading of some of these schools, their number decreased to 27 in 1959-60, and till March, 1964 the number of schools remained unchanged.

Secondary Education

Middle Schools

Secondary education has been the weakest link in the history of education. It had been the policy of Government in Central Provinces "to make the elementary education of the masses, the chief object of expenditure, and the promotion of higher education was thus left to private effort."[1] The secondary education stage comprised middle schools and high schools. The history of secondary education dates back to 1864-65 when we witness existence of a 'Zila School' at Khandwa, which was a middle school. There was no high school in the District so far. Besides, two anglo-vernacular and one vernacular town school, referred to already, were also grouped as middle schools. Since the year 1891-92 when the scheme of upper primary examination commenced, the upper primary, i.e., fourth vernacular class was attached to middle schools.

After a long process of slow and tardy growth the first decade of this Century witnessed an increase in the number of institutions imparting secondary education. The first high school also came into being in October, 1904[2] when the Municipal English Middle School, Khandwa, was raised to this status. It had the middle department too with a strength of 152, while in high school sections there were 39 students. Three years later an institution started in 1902 as primary school by the patron--Syedna Atul Fazl Abdullah Badruddin—was

1. C.P Administration Report, 1883-84, p. X.

2 Nimar District Gazetteer, 1908, p. 198.

*Founded by J. P. Miller, the then Chief Commissioner of C. P. and Berar, the school has grown into the present Multipurpose Higher Secondary School, Khandwa which was till 1955 a high school In 1961-62 it had a strength of 161 students, taught by 41 teachers. It has a well equipped library containing about 6,362 books. N.C.C. training was introduced in the schools as far back as 1947. The number of cadets in 1961-62 was 52.

also raised to the status of a high school at Burhanpur.[1] In the year 1907, number of high school and middle school students was 45 and 157, respectively. Burhanpur town had also one English Middle School. Besides these, there were six boys' vernacular middle schools in the District during this period. An aided Mission Vernacular Middle School with 89 students and a training class for girls also functioned at Khandwa. Three other vernacular middle schools also had training classes for teachers, preparing them for Teachers' Certificate Examination. On the recommendations of the Education Conference, held in 1901 at Simla, the middle, upper and lower primary examinations were abolished, and proposals were submitted for the introduction of a Departmental School Final Examination. High School Scholarship examination, as a test for the award of high school scholarship was instituted in lieu of Middle School Examination in 1902-03.[2] School Leaving Certificate examination was initiated in this Province in 1910.[3] Normal School at Khandwa was re-established in 1911-12. In this decade the number of secondary school rose from 7 to 10, while the strength of boys ranged in between 395 to 925. The strength of girls in the same period varied from 50 to 87.

After the passing of High School Education Act, 1922, new system [and contents were given to the secondary education. In the following year it came into force.[4] The Act established a Board to regulate and supervise the system of high school examinations in the Province, to prescribe courses for middle school classes, and to examine and award certificates to pupils who have passed a high school course. During the same year, vernacular was introduced as a medium of instruction in Government high schools, while aided schools were given the option of retaining English. In 1923-24 the reorganisation reduced the middle department from four to three years and increased the high school department from the three to four classes. The primary schooling was also reduced from five years to four years.[5] Later period witnessed an expansion of secondary education in the District. During the mid-'thirties, Burhanpur town had three, and Khandwa town two high schools. There was a popular demand for the anglo-vernacular schools for the girls at Khandwa and Burhanpur. As a consequence during the 'forties of the Century Mission Vernacular Middle School started optional classes for girls. English classes were also started and the records of the District show that increasing numbers attended them. Apart from boys, nine girls in rural areas also attended these classes. Average daily attendance in middle schools of the

1. Now this institution is known as Hakimia Multipurpose Higher Secondary School, having been converted to the present status in 1958. It is conducted by the 'Faize Hakimi Trust' which was established in 1909. In 1961-62, the strength of this school was 281 students, taught by 32 teachers. It also provides library and hostel facilities N. C. C. training was introduced in 1958. The number of cadets in 1962-63 was 50

2. C.P. Administration Report, 1902-03. pp 49-50.

3. Ibid, 1901-10, p. 46.

4. Ibid 1922-23, p. XXVIII.

5. State and Progress of Education Report, 1922-23, pp. 14, 20.

District Council ranged from 1,075 to 1,150 during the period 1939 to 1942. During the same period about 20 to 30 girls attended boys middle schools. The figures tabulated below show the position of secondary schools including both, middle and high schools.

Year	No. of schools	No. of pupils	
		Boys	Girls
1914-15	12	1,184	39
1924-25	17	1,854	80
1934-35	17	1,004	92
1944-45	15	3,330	118

Not much progress could be made during the years following Independence, till 1951, in the sphere of middle school education. However, the First Plan envisaged the rapid expansion of the same. At the end of the First Plan the number of schools increased to 34 with 5,912 students. During the Second Plan period, the secondary stage of 6 years was uniformly adopted on account of re-organisation of classes. Rapid expansion took place during this period which may be seen in the following Table.—

Year	No. of Middle schools		No. of students	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
1947	19	5	2,925	650
1951	19	4	3,363	992
1956	28	6	4,630	1,282
1961	30	4	5,692	1,323

The number of middle schools (including senior basic) in 1963-64 was 65, of which 53 were for boys with a strength of 7,163 students and 12 for girls. There were 357 teachers of whom 320 were trained and 37 untrained.

Senior Basic Schools

With a view to introducing Basic Syllabus in one selected middle school in each tahsil, the Government in 1951 converted three middle schools of the District into senior basic schools. In the beginning their strength was 891 students and 33 teachers. Later as a result of the acceptance of the recommendations of the Secondary Education Commission (1951-53), appointed by the Government of India, the State Government resolved to expand rapidly the basic education. Thereafter the progress of senior basic education gathered momentum, which can be seen in the Table below.—

Year	No. of schools	No. of scholars	No. of teachers
1950-51	3	891	34
1955-56	9	2,349	92
1956-57	10	2,474	98

1957-58	14	3,269	114
1958-59	13	3,202	107
1959-60	13	2,403	91
1960-61	13	3,294	90
1962-63	16	3,980	151

Higher Secondary Education

The higher secondary stage marks the final stage of secondary education. After the publication of the report of Secondary Education Commission (1951-53), the State Government has been trying to introduce reforms in the curriculum, etc. In pursuance of the policy of the Government the oldest High School was converted into Multipurpose Higher Secondary School in 1955. Besides, some high schools were also converted into higher secondary schools in which subjects like music, crafts, agriculture, etc., were introduced. An important development took place in 1958-59 when class V was removed from the secondary stage and was added to primary stage. Class VI to VIII formed middle stage and the higher secondary stage commenced from class IX and ended with class XI. It seeks to educate pupils to qualify for Higher Secondary Certificate Examination. The progress of higher secondary education since 1947 is given in the following Table.—

Year	No. of schools for		No. of students		No. of teachers	Expenditure
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls		(Rs.)
1947	6	—	777	—	49	87,668
1951	10	2	2,712	848	189	2,87,605
1956	14	3	6,015	1,487	349	7,38,557
1961	19	5	6,684	1,847	424	10,42,789

By 1963-64, the number of higher secondary schools for boys increased to 25 from 19 in 1960-61, whereas that of girls remained the same, *viz.*, five. The number of boys on the rolls were 7,830 and girls 2,846, taught by 466 teachers. These include the multipurpose schools also. Of these, 18 were managed by the Government and 12 by the private bodies.

Collegiate Education

It was practically after an educational history extending over a period of a century that the District witnessed the beginning of the collegiate education in the year 1948. The Nimar Education Society started Nilkantheshwar Arts College in July, 1948, at Khandwa with 56 students on its rolls. The number of students rose to 145 in 1951-52. In 1952-53 the Faculty of Commerce was introduced in the College, and the strength of students increased to 276 in 1955-56. In the next year Sewa Sadan Society of Burhanpur came forward in the field of collegiate education by starting a college at Burhanpur, with the Faculties of Arts and Commerce. The number of scholars in both the colleges was 349 in 1956-57, which increased to 425 next year. Nilkantheshwar College, Khandwa, in addition

to Arts and Commerce Faculties introduced the Faculty of Science in 1958-59, when the two colleges enrolled 579 students. In 1960-61 their number increased to 838. Both the colleges received grants-in-aid. The year 1962 witnessed establishment of Kadaria Science College, and Kadaria Home Science College for Women, both at Burhanpur, and run by Kadaria Education Society, Burhanpur. The Government of Madhya Pradesh has taken over the college at Khandwa and converted it into a post-graduate college with effect from June, 1963.

In the year 1963-64 the Government also started a College at Khandwa for Women. Sewa Sadan Arts and Commerce College has been allowed to start post-graduate classes in both the faculties. All these colleges of the District are affiliated to the Saugar University, Sagar.

PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

Law

Motilal Nehru Law College

The Law Education Society started the first Law College at Khandwa in 1960, affiliated to Saugar University. It was named after Motilal Nehru, to commemorate the name of the great legal luminary and patriot. In the beginning it was housed in the building of the Motilal Nehru High School but in 1963-64 it was shifted to its own premises in Civil Lines area. The management of the College rests with a Governing Council, consisting of reputed members. In 1961-62, 72 students were on the rolls of the college, taught by 9 teachers. It provides for two years' instructions in Law after graduation, leading to a degree in Law of Saugar University. Sewa Sadan Society, Burhanpur, also started a Law College at Burhanpur in the year 1962, which is also affiliated to Saugar University.

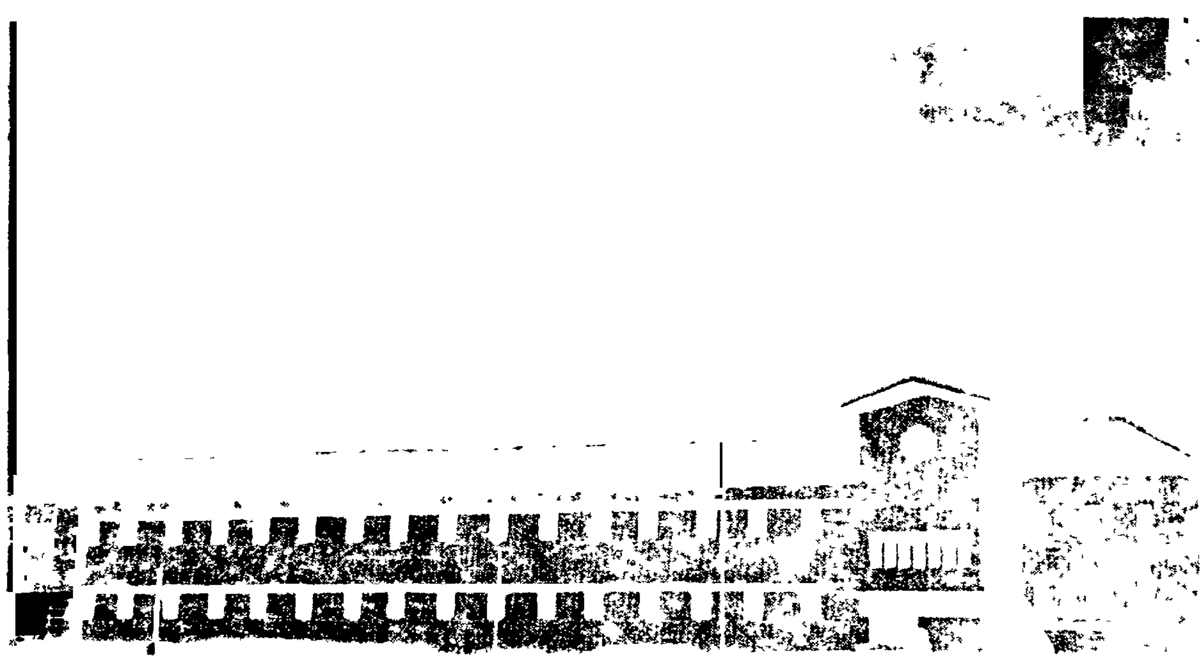
Medical

Ayurvedic Mahavidyalaya, Burhanpur

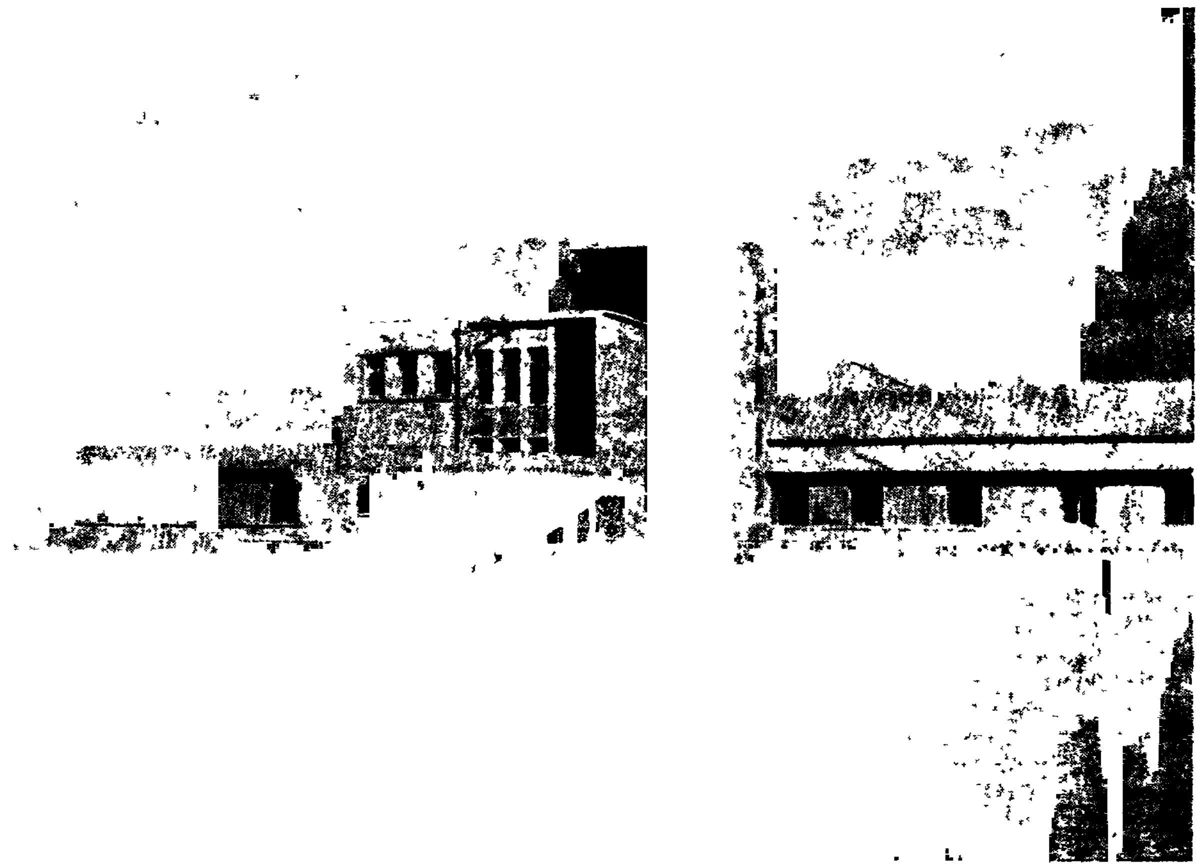
Established in July, 1958 it is affiliated to the Board of Ayurvedic and Unani System of Medicine Mahakoshal, Jabalpur. It is an aided institution owned and run by the Ayurvedic Shikshan Mandal, Burhanpur. Instructions are provided for a 3 years' course leading to Diploma of Licenciate Ayurvedic Practitioner (Bhishaghwar). There were 21 students and eight teachers in 1961-62. Till 1964-65, 28 students have received the Diploma. During 1962-63, of the total receipts of Rs. 10,266. a sum of Rs. 1,467 was granted by the Government as grants-in-aid. The expenditure on the institution amounted to Rs. 10,546 during the same period. The college has its own Ayurveda Aushadhalaya and for the practical training students go to Nehru Hospital, Burhanpur.

Treachers' Training

The first Normal School, opened at Khandwa in the year 1865-66 was closed in the following year. In the field of teachers' training, three vernacular



Polytechnic, Khandwa



Industrial Training Institute, Khandwa

middle schools of the District were also working during the early years of this Century. These schools conducted training classes for teachers' Certificate Examination. Methodist Misson Vernacular Middle School, also conducted a training class for girls during this period. Some time later, normal schools were established at Khandwa and Burhanpur. In the year 1932-33 the Normal School of Khandwa was closed, and in the meanwhile the teachers were trained in the training classes attached to Vernacular Middle Schools and Methodist Mission School, Khandwa. Prior to 1947, there were three (two for males and one for females) training schools with an enrolment of 264 primary teacher trainees (228 males and 36 females), which increased to 277 trainees (288 males and 49 females) in 1951 and 518 in 1960-61. With the conversion of some primary schools of the District into Junior Basic Schools, these teachers' training institutions were also trnsformed into Basic Training Schools in 1955-56. In the year 1956-57, Basic Normal School for Urdu teachers at Burhanpur was shifted to Balapur. A provision for the training of Urdu and Marathi teachers was also made in 1958-59 when Buniyadi Prashikshan Vidyalaya was established at Burhanpur. One private aided mission Normal School has also been working at Khandwa, specially for lady teachers. In the year 1963-64, there were four training schools in the District, of which three were at Khandwa.

Training Colleges

A Government Diploma Training Institute functioning at Khandwa till the year 1956-57 was upgraded into a Degree College in the first instance. The strength of the College in 1957-58 was 195 as against 119 in 1947-48. In 1961 it was converted into a post-Graduate Basic Training College. It prepares candidates for degrees in education, *viz.*, B. Ed. and M. Ed. In 1960-61 the strength of the trainees increased to 213, taught by 21 teachers.

Engineering and Technological

Junior Technical School, Khandwa

The Government of the Province first prepared a scheme to establish a school of handicrafts at Khandwa in the year 1928-29. But due to financial stringencies, it had to be shelved inspite of popular demand for the same. Later, after ten years, however, the Khandwa Municipality started one Industrial School at Khandwa. It imparted education to students in the crafts of carpentry and smithy. The school was taken over by the Government in 1954-55, and was converted into a Vocational High School. The number of trainees was 32 in 1955-56 and 73 in 1957-58. Again, in 1959 it was transformed into a Junior Technical High School. It provides for a three years' course, designed to train the boys for different productive occupations of technical value, while continuing their general education. Strength of students in 1961-62 was 98.

Industrial Training Institute

In the year 1958-59, Industrial Training Institute was started at Khandwa by the Government. In the first year of its inception it trained 40 students in various

industrial crafts. The school provides stipends to poor, deserving and promising students, besides providing free lodging, tools, books and other appliances required for training. In 1961 there were 158 boys and 18 teachers in the school.

Government Polytechnic, Khandwa

A Government Polytechnic Institute was started at Khandwa during the year 1960-61 with only 30 boys on its rolls. However, in the following year the in-take capacity was raised to 120 students, and Electrical, Mechanical and Civil Engineering courses were started. Presently, it provides instructions to 275 students in all the three branches, leading to the award of Diploma of the State Board. From 1960, Senior Division of N.C.C. was introduced. A new company of N.C.C.R. was introduced from 1963, and it was made compulsory for all students to join it. In 1962-63, there were 150 cadets.

ORIENTAL SCHOOLS

Sanskrit Pathshala

A Sanskrit Pathshala, established at Khandwa in 1913, was taken over by the local Municipality in 1939. It is recognised and aided by the Government. It prepares students for examinations of Sanskrit University, Varanasi. The number of students increased from 26 in 1930 to 50 in 1961. In 1963-64 there were 45 students on its rolls.

Jain Pathshala

In 1921 a Jain Pathshala was started by a philanthropist at Khandwa. Six years later a Jain Kanya Pathshala was also started in its own building. These unrecognised Pathshalas prepared students for examination in Sanskrit and Jain philosophy, conducted by the M.H. Jain Examination Board, Bombay. These are open to all, and are held in the evening. Besides, these institutions also run a primary school, recognised by the Government. The oriental study-wing of these institutions are managed by their respective managing committees.

Education for Handicapped Children

Bal Sewa Sadan at Khandwa and a *Gurukul* at Omkar Mandhata provide for free boarding, lodging and education of orphans and handicapped children.

SOCIAL EDUCATION

The wide-spread adult illiteracy became the source of great anxiety to the first popular ministry of the Central Provinces and Berar, in 1937. Government started an intensive programme of Adult Education. But the Second World War intervened and it was not till 1st May, 1948 that we see the launching of Social Education Scheme. It seeks to impart many-sided instructions in literacy, social health and hygiene, citizenship and recreation. Till 1953-54, Education Department looked after it, but after the creation of Social Welfare Department it was

transferred to its control. East Nimar got a Welfare Officer then. Three-fold media were adopted to promote the programme, *viz.*, through teaching, literature and audio-visual aids.

Adult Literacy

Adult literacy campaign forms the major part of Social Educational programme. For the eradication of illiteracy among the adults, social education certificate courses were launched, commonly known as Summer, Mansoon and Winter Courses. An Adult between the ages of 14 to 40 years, who had not passed Primary School Examination, or was not on the rolls of any school, was regarded as illiterate. The volunteers and teachers who conducted these courses or camps were given rewards, apart from honorarium. During the First and the Second Plan periods, 669 social education classes were organised and about 8,205 adults were made literate. On the formation of the new Department, on the recommendations of Social Education Enquiry Committee (1952). the courses were reorganised in 1954 and extended over a year. From 1954-55 to 1962-63 the District Welfare Officer organised 674 social education classes and educated 10,585 adults (9,331 males and 1,254 females).

Audio-Visual Aids

Social education was further advanced by utilizing audio-visual means which included film, film-strips, epidiascope and magic lenterns, radio broadcast, songs, dramas, *bhajan* and *kirtan*. A van fitted with audio-visual equipments carried the work of exhibiting educative films in the accessible villages. This medium has become very popular.

In addition, the Department has also set up a Kalapathak of 7 artists who are proficient in music, singing, drama performance and oratory. The squad of these artists through their many-sided performances inspired villagers to voluntarily offer *shramdan* in works of rural reconstruction and village welfare Cultural squads were also formed at various places. The squads earned wide reputation for staging educational short-plays in an efficient manner. The number of cultural programmes arranged by the Department in the following years is given as under.—

	1956-57	1958-59	1961-62	1963-64	1964-65
No. of cine shows	25	128	126	136	78
No. of Kalapathak programmes	75	78	70	108	115

Propaganda work is also done by the Kalapathak to popularise prohibition and other welfare schemes of the Government, like Grow More Food, *vanamahotsava*, small-savings, eradication of *kans* from fields, etc.

The installation of community listening-sets, which is an important medium of spreading mass literacy, was resorted to in 1950-51. About 16 sets were installed in rural areas which increased to 104 in May, 1965

Follow-up Education

To prevent neo-literates from relapsing into illiteracy the Department arranged for the follow-up education. For this purpose, circulating and other libraries were opened. In 1959-60 there were 125 circulating boxes which increased to 181 in 1965. Apart from this, literature including books, pamphlets and periodicals were also distributed. Recently, the Department has established open reading-rooms at five centres over which about Rs. 1,000 were spent annually.

LITERARY TRADITIONS OF THE DISTRICT

In the medieval period, Burhanpur region was the centre of all sorts of activities. The region enjoyed its palmy days during the rule of the Mughals. As has been stated earlier, the literature of the age mostly reflects the cult of *Bhakti* or devotion, and also bears an influence of Sufism. The literary celebrities of the period were either immigrant literary *proteges* of ruling chiefs, or sons of the soil. Amongst them Hazarat Shah Bhikhari, Hamiuddin, Kutubuddin, Jalal, Wajan, Sheikh Ali Muttaki, Hazarat Shah Issa, Fateh Mohammad Mohddish, Burhan-uddin Rajela, Fazlulla Naib Rasulillah, etc.,[1] figured prominently. Sadi, whom Laxmi Narayan Shafiq mentioned as 'Nawabe Burhanpur' was a great poet. His tomb at Sirpur in Burhanpur Tahsil is the place where annual *urs* is held. Of the Hindu celebrities of the age, mention may be made of Puran Saheb who had written many works, important of which was a detailed commentary on saint Kabir's *Bijak* (collection of Kabir's poetry). He resided for many years at Nagziri in this District in a temple of Kabirpantha. Basto, a Gujarati writer, migrated to Burhanpur where he was said to have received inspiration for writing. His great work was *Shukdeva Akhyan*.

In the later medieval period, about 1755 A.D., Nimar has the distinction of being the birth place of an important poet, saint Singaji,[2] whose simple poetical teachings in Nimari echoed through out the area. In the recent past, Khandwa nursed an important Muslim poet, Saiyad Chhedalal Shah who was born in *v.s.* 1937. He was a worshipper of lord Krishna and wrote many important literary works, chief of them were *Bhakta-panchashika*, *Shrikrishana-panchashika*, *Harganga Ramayan*, *Atma-bodh* and *Bhagwat-ki-tika*.

Another distinguished literary luminary was, Makhan Lal Chaturvedi, *Ek Bharatiya Atma* (1889-1968). He was an eminent poet, writer, journalist and patriot. A most respected leader in Madhya Pradesh, he was a powerful orator and exercised tremendous influence over the young generation. He pioneered a new trend in poetry which was a happy blend of nationalism and romantic mysticism. The diction of his prose and poetry is highly individualistic—simple, direct and fluent. The greatest literary figure in the State, he enjoyed the pride of place in the higher echelon of Hindi letters. He

1. *Burhanpur Parichaya*, pp. 27-30. (The Burhanpur Historical and Archaeological Society)
2. *Shukla Abhinandan Granth, Sahitya-Khand*, p. 26.

died full of years and honours. The University of Saugar conferred on him, *honoris causa*, the degree of the Doctor of Literature in 1959. He was also the recipient of the national award of Padma Bhushan in 1963. The State Government arranged a special function at Khandwa in 1965 to honour him publicly and the State Governor and the Chief Minister attended it. He presided over important conferences, such as, Provincial Hindi Sahitya Sammelan in 1930 and 1935, Editors' Conference at Bharatpur in 1929, All India Hindi Sahitya Sammelan in 1943, etc. The Sahitya Academy awarded him the first prize in 1954 on his book *Hima Tarangini*. His published works are *Krishnarjun Yuddha* (1918), *Sahitya Devata* (1943), *Hima Kiritini* (1943), *Hima Tarangini* (1949), *Mata* (1951), *Kala Ka Anuvad* (1954), *Yuga Charan* (1956), *Samarpan* (1956), *Venu Lo Gunje Dhara* (1960), *Amir Irade Garib Irade* (1960), *Samaya Ke Paon* (1962), *Maran Jwar* (1963), *Beejuri Kajar Anj Rahi* (1964) and *Chintak Ki Lachari* (1965).

Besides, Prabhag Chandra Sharma, K. Ramchandra Billore, Gangacharan Dikshit and Shivdatta Gyani are well-known writers of the District.

CULTURAL, LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC SOCIETIES

Jnan Prasarak Sabha, the pioneer in the field of learning and education was established in 1859 with only 21 members. In the fortnightly meetings, papers were read and discussed on various subjects. Later, after two years a branch of the same also came into being at Burhanpur Nothing is known about the later history of this Sabha. however, in 1882 another body known as Balkaumudi came into being with similar objective at Khandwa. In the same year Prayatnik Sabha was established in Burhanpur to promote learning through literary discourses, lectures, etc. It is believed that Balkaumudi Sabha functioned at least till 1894-95, whereafter, it is likely that these societies were merged with the libraries of Khandwa and Burhanpur, respectively, which had gained prominence by then.

In the recent years various societies have come into being. Of these the following are important ones.—

Nimar Educational Society

Registered in the year 1946, the society aims at the advancement of the cause of education. The society raised funds and established Subhash High School in 1947. In the following years the society also opened a college named Shri Nilkantheshwar College at Khandwa (since taken over by the Government).

Law Education Society

Some members of Khandwa Bar, constituted themselves into a society called Law Education society in the year 1960 to advance the cause of legal education by establishing a college for the same. The management of the society is vested in Governing Council. The society started a Law College in the same year. It also aims at starting summer classes to train the members of the Nyaya Panchayat and to extend free legal aid to the poor and needy litigants.

Ayurvedic Shikshan Mandal, Burhanpur

The Mandal emerged in 1958 out of 'Vaidya Sabha' a forum of local *Vaidyas.* It is a rgistered body which aims at promoting the cause of Ayurvedic system of medicine. For the purpose, it started a college in 1958. The Mandal received grants-in-aid from the Government towards the expenses of college and *darmarth* dispensary run by it. The expenditure of the Mandal in 1961-62 was to the tune of Rs. 12,042 and Rs. 15,594 in the following year.

Lal Bagh Educational Society, Burhanpur

In the 'forties of the Century a society was formed to provide educational facilities in the locality under the above name. It runs a high school and receives grants-in-aid for the same. In 1962-63 total receipts of the Society were of the order of Rs. 42,986, inclusive of Rs. 22,198 grants-in-aid.

Bharatiya Shiksha Samiti, Burhanpur

Founded in 1945, the Samiti took over the management of Bharatiya High School, Burhanpur, in the same year. It received a sum of Rs. 22,197 as grants-in-aid in 1962-63. In addition, Government of India sanctioned a sum of Rs. 35,000 to the Samiti for the construction of an auditorium-cum-recreation hall.

Apart from these, there are various societies which are engaged in the promotion of learning and education. A few of them are Arya Mahila Samaj, Khandwa, established in 1935, Hamrahi Club Khandwa, 1954, Nimar Vanita Vishwa, Khandwa, 1947, Vanita Vihar, Burhanpur, 1949, Hindu Bal Sadan, Khandwa, 1920, etc. Lok Shikshan Samiti, Khandwa, Nepanagar Education Society, Hakim Coronation Society, Quaderia Education Society, Anjuman Islamia Taraqqi, Burhanpur, Catholic Missionary Society, etc., are also striving for the educational and cultural advancement.

Cultural Literary and Scientific Periodicals

The details of periodicals published in the District from time to time have been given in Chapter XVIII.

LIBRARIES

The earliest evidence we have in the District about the library movement is of the 'forties of the last Century when Political Assistant of Nimar Agency established small libraries in the towns of the District.[1] People of the town voluntarily collected about Rs. 1,400 for the same by 1849. In Burhanpur a library building was also constructed out of the subscriptions. Asir also got a library during this period. Nothing is known about these libraries till the year 1864 when the District was transferred to the Central Provinces. There after in the following year, Khandwa Native library was established and three years later (1868), Burhanpur library also

1. Report on the Province of Nimar, 1855, p. 35.

came into being. Both these libraries are still functioning under the name of Manikya Memorial Library, Khandwa and Mahatma Gandhi Sarvajanik Vachanalaya, Burhanpur.

Manikya Memorial Library, Khandwa

In recognition of the services rendered by Manikya Chandra Jain, a literary figure of the town, the Morris Memorial library,[1] established in 1865, was renamed after him immediately after Independence. It has on its shelves about 6,000 books on various subjects and languages. It subscribes for about 50 periodicals for its reading section, which is frequented by about 200 persons daily. Apart from this, the library also organises literary and cultural activities, such as Tulsi-Jayanti, Vasantotsava, kavi-sammelan, etc.

Mahatma Gandhi Sarvajanik Vachanalaya

About a century back (1868), this library started in a humble way with 1,000 books, received as donation from the Government. In 1949 the library was renamed as Mahatma Gandhi Sarvajanik Vachanalaya. It has on its shelves about 5,000 books on different subjects and languages. It subscribes to about 40 periodicals and newspapers for its *vachanalaya* which is frequented by about 150 persons daily. It also arranges literary and cultural activities, such as, Tulsi-Jayanti, kavi-sammelan, etc., for the benefit of public.

Government District Library, Khandwa

Under a new scheme, the Education Department with the aid of Central Government established a library at Khandwa, in 1955. It has on its shelves about 4,000 books on various subjects. The reading section subscribes to about 30 periodicals. It is under the control and management of District Education Officer. The library circulates books, etc., to about 60 centres in rural areas to help neo-literates to keep up their knowledge.

Besides, there are a number of other libraries and reading-rooms in the District of which five are more important. Maharashtra Vachanalaya and Digambar Jain Vachanalaya are located at Khandwa. Janata Library, Indian Library and Gyan Vardhini Sabha libraries are located at Burhanpur. These libraries maintain good collection of books and reading-rooms too for the benefit of the general public.

The Janapada Sabha of Khandwa, Burhanpur and Harsud Tahsils started libraries of their own in Barud, Ahmadpur, Dapora and Harsud villages of the District.

1. The Khandwa Native library, which was established in 1865, was renamed in 1882-83 as Morris Memorial Library in memory of the then Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces.

CHAPTER XVI

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

Disease and destitution in this Country from times immemorial are being looked upon as disfavour or wrath of the God Almighty and the results of the sins of comission and omission in previous births. This ingrained belief about the nature and causes of disease in the minds of the people, though vanishing rapidly under the modern conditions and advance in medical science, is even now found persisting mostly amongst the destitute masses in the country-side.

In olden times this idea of disease as a God-sent means of retribution for the past sins of an individual was rampant because medical treatment as it existed was not easily accessible to all. The *vaidyas* and *hakims* were few and far between and they too looked for the patronage of well-to-do people in the society for their prosperity and renown. Eventually, the persons of ordinary stature and means had to fall back upon propitiation of their household or other deities to avert ill-health and diseases.

To these general conditions in the Country as a whole and of its people, the Nimar District was no exception as can be seen from the following extract regarding primitive beliefs and practices.—

"If a child has eczema or boils on the face, some *pipal* leaves are taken or hung up in the kitchen and as they dry up, so is thought, the boils will dry up and disappear. If a child is a long time in learning to talk they give it the grain which a tame parrot has dropped from its beak while eating. The charred remains of bamboo from which a bier has been made are considered efficacious as a remedy for fever. They are burnt and the patient stands in the smoke. Formerly a favourite remedy for illness was to brand the body with a hatchet on the place where pain was felt. In the bad cases the patient was branded on the neck and on both arms and legs. Children attacked by convulsions were branded with a piece of gold in three places on the stomach, etc."[1] The occurrence of small-pox in the family is even now treated as a visitation of *mata* not only in rural but even in urban areas, though vaccination for smallpox is an accepted remedy.

The system of *Ayurvedic* medicine was prevalent all over India, alongwith *Mantrik*, and *Tantrik* methods for treatment of diseases. The old-time system of medicine in the District conformed to the general conditions in that respect all

1. Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 61.

over India. *Unani* system of medicine was widely practised during the period of Mohammedan rulers. Even in the present days of supremacy of the Allopathic system of medicine, *Ayurvedic* medical practitioners are found in the District with a good practice. This is so, because *Ayurvedic* system, over a period of time, has become a system for the masses. With the shifting of patronage of well-to-do sections in the society, from *Ayurvedic* to Allopathic system the former system had to look for its clientele amongst the masses. *Unani* system, is also prevalent in the District but not to the extent as *Ayurvedic* system.

It was in 1823-1825 that Nimar District came under the administrative control of the British. In the year 1849, establishment of first Allopathic dispensary was sanctioned by the Government for Khandwa. The expenses towards construction of hospital buildings were paid partly by the Government and partly by the people. By 1867 there were three dispensaries in the District, two at Burhanpur and one at Khandwa, all maintained partly by Government grants and partly by local subscriptions. The number of dispensaries increased to six in the first decade of the current Century. Of these six dispendsaries, main dispensaries at Khandwa and at Burhanpur admitted indoor patients while others at Shahpur, Pandhana, Mandhata and Harsud catered outdoor relief only. The Mandhata dispensary was maintained by the Rao of Mandhata and served the large pilgrim population which visited the shrine of Onkarnath almost all the year round. The dispensary at Harsud, which was opened in 1899 for the relief of the Tahsilstaff, was supported solely by Government. A dispensary was located at Asirgarh, but was closed in 1902 owing to the removal of the garrison. Besides the regular dispensaries there were usual jail and police hospitals at the headquarters of the District. The Khandwa main dispensary had accommodation for 30 in-patients, and that at Burhanpur for 20. A total of 56,334 persons had received medical relief during the year 1906. The average annual number of operations was 1,622. The major operations were mainly for cataract and stone in the bladder and the diseases generally treated were fevers, ulcers and eye diseases. The average annual income of the dispensaries was Rs. 12,600 of which Rs. 4,[illegible]00 were contributed by Government, Rs. 6,000 by Local funds and the rest was realised from subscriptions. The general supervision of the dispensaries rested with the Civil Surgeon of the District. As might be expected, in the earlier days, when the population was imbued with traditional beliefs and prejudices it was difficult to make progress with the new system of medicine. It is also a fact that costly Allopathic system was out of the reach of poor masses who could ill afford to pay for it. However, now with the spread of education and beneficial effects of the Allopathic system having become apparent, people are turning more and more to hospitals and dispensaries for relief.

Epidemics were fewer in the past but the incidence of casualties, if a virulent epidemic broke out was severe owing to the fact that the administration did not possess sufficient medical personnel to be sent promptly to the affected area and it also took a long time to supply the medicines to the country-side. Out-break of cholera was more or less regular after 1870. Between 1870 and 1906, in seven

years severity of this epidemic took the toll of 1,000 lives. One of the reasons helpful to the spread of this epidemic was stated to be the huge congregation of pious Hindus from Central India and Rajasthan at the shrine of Omkar Mandhata.

Small-pox was also equally regular in its visitations. The number of deaths during the decade 1896 to 1905 was 480 of which 385 deaths were in the two years 1900 and 1905. Measles and chicken-pox were the minor epidemic diseases which generally appeared about the same time as small-pox and influenza.

Besides epidemic diseases, fever, mostly malarial in nature, was common mainly from August to January, the average ratio of deaths per 1,000 for the years 1896-1905 was 32. The heaviest mortality under the head "fevers" had been during the years 1897 and 1900. These were the years of scarcity and famine. The deaths per 1,000 of population in these years were 41 and 59, respectively. Mortality from fever was low in urban as compared to rural areas in the District. This was because in rural areas, dark ill-ventilated houses, narrow lanes and complete absence of drainage, with water-logging near houses, created virtual breeding grounds for mosquitoes.

The year 1902 saw the visitation of plague. It was imported from Khandesh. Deaths due to this disease in the years 1903 and 1904 were at the rate of eight and seven per mille of population, respectively. The rat mortality was generally recognized as the precursor of plague, and villagers readily moved to huts outside the villages on the first sign.

Bad condition of public health became worse during the periods of epidemics due to the presence of large number of tribal and illiterate people. It was found that these people were averse to adopting modern or systematic methods of treatment against any epidemics or other diseases, and very often the help of police and revenue officers had to be sought to enforce control measures against epidemic diseases. These people cherished primitive superstitious beliefs and practices which prevented them from taking advantage of medical aid.

Turning to the public health administration in the District in early times, we find the Civil Surgeon as also the District Health Officer. He was the adviser to the Local bodies on the matters of sanitation and public health. Sanitation and health matters, however, received scant attention. It was only in the towns of Khandwa and Burhanpur that conservancy and cleanliness was fairly looked after by the respective municipal committees of those towns. "In 1905, 24 villages in the District were managed under what were then known as "Basti Fund Rules", the income being derived from a home-tax, cattle-trespass fines, the sale-proceeds of building sites, and other sources, and spent on the improvement of the water-supply and village roads and other sanitary measures. With the introduction of Village Sanitation Act in 1889, the old Basti Funds disappeared."[1] In 1907-08 there were 36 villages under the Mukaddam Rules. These rules were based

1. Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 190.

on Section 141 A of the Land Revenue Act. The funds raised were spent entirely on the pay of the conservancy establishment. The water-supply of other villages was improved, and from 1895 to 1907-08 the expenditure on this account had been Rs. 12,000. With this amount 12 new masonry wells were sunk and 64 others repaired and improved.

Vaccination was compulsory in the municipal towns of Khandwa and Burhanpur but was carried on all over the District in the cold weather. The establishment consisted of a Superintendent and nine Vaccinators. At villages where there were dispensaries, the vaccination work was done by the hospital assistants in charge.

VITAL STATISTICS

An improvement in the old method of registration of births and deaths was made in the year 1870, by introducing a new form of register and extending the registration of births and deaths to all parts of the then Province, under the direct management of Administration with the exception of a small proportion of villages in the more remote and wild localities.

Quality of the data collected in this respect has always remained a matter of controversy and comments in the reports and publications on the topic from earlier times. As early as in the year 1867-68 the then Sanitary Commissioner thought that "The returns from towns are probably nearer the truth than those from rural tracts, but from neither can much reliable information regarding the rates of increase and mortality of the population be extracted." Even now this subject of improving the quality of data and appropriate agencies through which to collect them continues to be a topic of discussion in conference and research papers. Data regarding cause of death were even more unreliable particularly in rural areas. With the agencies available like that of the illiterate village watchman accurate diagnosis could not be attained.

Taking the quality of data, therefore, as given the decade 1872-81 in the District was found to be one with the lowest rate of natural increase, i.e., 2.05. Number of births during this period was 35.1 per cent and number of deaths was 33 per cent of the population in the year 1872. This lowest rate of natural increase in the District was attributed to the out-break of cholera and other diseases in the year 1872 and again in 1878. The proportion of registered deaths per 1,000 of the population in these two years greatly exceeded births and also in two other years *viz.*, 1875 and 1877, death rate was exceptionally high.

In the decade 1881-1890, average annual rates of births and deaths per mille were 42.4 and 36.1, respectively. Percentage increase in population under registration for the 1881 census was 6.2. During this decade and especially during the second half of it the number of births registered in the District was greater than in the first half. As a matter of fact this situation was exceptional as in most

of the other districts, the later half of the decade was characterised by decline in birth-rate, because last five years of the decade for whole of the Provinces were of general scarcity and high prices, coupled with a very unhealthy season in 1889. "Hoshangabad and Nimar, from whatever cause, have fared better than the districts higher up the Nerbada........"[1]

The average annual birth-rate in the decade 1891-1900 was 41 per mille and the death-rate 46. The visitations of cholera in the year 1892 and 1895 as well as famines in 1897 and 1900 took heavy toll of lives in the District. As a matter of fact, there were only three years out of the decade, which were considered healthy. The death-rate was thus naturally higher during the decade.

The birth-rate during the decade 1901-10 was 54, while death-rate was 42. In this connection in the Census Report of 1911 it was observed that, "The birth-rate, except in the Burhanpur tahsil where it was influenced by the low city ratio, has been high. There is evidence that the registration of birth in the city areas is inaccurate and the average of the district (54) is affected thereby. The death-rate has been exceptionally high as compared with the average of the Division, partly owing to the fact of over 8,000 deaths from plague, which has regularly visited the Burhanpur city and caused a decrease of over 8,000 persons in the census population of the district."[2] In a way this statement while substantiating the high death-rate, raises doubt about the authenticity of high birth-rate due to the inaccuracy in the registration of births.

In the following decade 1911-20 birth-rate in the District was 49 while death-rate was 51. "The recorded deaths exceeded the births by nearly 10,000 owing to plague, from which the district suffered severely in the years 1911-1912 and 1917 and to influenza in 1918 and 1919."[3] This explains the cause of high death-rate during the decade. "Vital statistics must be accepted with reserve as the reporting broke down hopelessly........" observed the Census Commissioner.

The mean decennial birth and death-rates, as well as total number of registered births and deaths in the District, for the subsequent decades are given in the Table below.—

Decade	Total No. of Registered Births	Total No of Registered Deaths	Mean Decennial					
			Birth rate (Reg.)			Death rate (Reg.)		
			Urban	Rural	District	Urban	Rural	District
1921-30	197,268	150,554	42.4	48.1	47.2	34.1	36.4	36.0
1931-40	215,184	187,959	42.2	46.0	45.3	30.6	41.5	39.6
1941-50	212,298	192,398	41.5	41.5	41.6	30.4	39.6	37.7

1. Census of India, 1891, the Central Provinces and Feudatories, Pt.I, p 42.
2. Census of India, 1911, Central Provinces and Berar, Pt. I, p. 38.
3. Ibid, 1921, Pt. I, p. 15.

It may be noticed from the figures above that there was definite downward trend in the birth-rate from decade to decade both in the urban and rural areas of the District. In the rural areas there was a sharp decline in the birth-rate from the decade 1931-40 to 1941-50. The reason for this sharp decline in the birth-rate in the rural areas might be partly attributed to the migration of rural population to urban areas and with its characteristic feature of lower proportion of female population, showing the tendency of the villagers to leave their families behind in the villages. Fall in the birth-rate for the District as a whole from 45.3 in 1931-40 to 41.6 in 1941-50, might be attributed to the fact that "the highly affected age-groups 0-5 of the influenza epidemic decade 1911-20 passing through the reproduction age during the period 1941-50."[1] In addition as a result of Sarda Act (Act No. XIX of 1929) the proportion of married persons also diminished in the decade 1941-50.

The number of married males and females in the District during the decades 1921 to 1951 was.—

Year	No. of Married Females per 1,000	No of Married Males per 1,000
1921	512	490
1931	545	516
1941	505	469
1951	494	465

Reduction in the number of married male and female population naturally resulted in lowering the birth-rate.

There was an increase in the death-rate in the District during the decade 1931-40 as compared to the previous decade 1921-30. This increase in the death-rate in the District was in keeping with the rate that obtained during the decade 1931-40 in the whole of North-West Division of the then Madhya Pradesh, of which Nimar District was a part."........the increase of death-rate during the decade 1931-40 in the North-West Madhya Pradesh Division is mainly due to deaths caused by fevers, respiratory diseases and "all other causes." During this decade in nine successive Annual Public Health Department Reports the Nimar district is shown to have accounted for a very high death-rate due to the above causes."[2] Against this background of general conditions in the Division as well as the District during the decade, higher death-rate in the rural areas of the District, i.e., 41.5 as compared to 30.6 in the urban areas can be easily explained, as rural areas are generally vulnerable to the onslaughts of diseases on account of general paucity of medical and public health facilities. Decline in the death-rate in the decade 1941-50 in the District, might be attributed to the State-wide measures undertaken during the decade for the control of epidemics. As a matter

1. Census of India, 1951, Madhya Pradesh, Pt. I-A, p. 37.
2. Ibid, p. 42.

of fact, for the whole of the State death-rate was also lower in this decade, as compared to the previous decades.

Statistics of briths and deaths in the District from the year 1951 to 1960 are given below.—

Years	Registered births	Birth rate	Registered deaths	Death rate
1951	21,243	40.55	13,736	26.22
1952	22,771	43.39	11,803	22.49
1953	24,147	47.44	16,400	31.12
1954	22,995	43.85	13,287	25.33
1955	26,877	52.12	11,535	23.52
1956	24,990	47.64	10,238	19.83
1957	25,460	46.86	13,318	24.74
1958	22,804	48.12	12,325	22.04
1959	25,244	48.12	10,682	20.75
1960	23,993	45.75	9,863	18.80

In the year 1963 total number of registered births in the District was 24,801 as against 24,220 in 1962 and 26,633 in 1961, while the number of registered deaths in 1963 was 10,859 as against 12,666 in 1962 and 14,352 in 1961.

Some idea of the magnitude of infant mortality can be had from the Annual Public Health Reports of the State. For example, the report for the year 1921 stated it to be a fact arresting attention, "that practically half the children born do not survive the fifth year of life."[1] In the year 1934, the District was at the top of the list of seven other districts having annual average infant mortality rate in excess of the State average in that year. The infant mortality rate was 308 in that year. Regarding causes of infant mortality the Report stated that, "Owing to absence of data, a correct analysis of the causes of infantile death cannot be made but it is suspected that debilitating influences, dietetic errors and deficiencies, such as, malaria, maternal pre-natal weakness and neglect and bad housing are contributing factors. An excessive birth-rate, lack of medical aid and ignorance in the care and bringing up of infants are also greately responsible."[2] In the year 1950 total number of deaths of infants was 4,517. The Table below shows the total number of death of infants during the succeeding years.

Year	No. of Deaths of infants	Year	No. of Deaths of infants
1951	3,553	1957	4,990
1952	3,029	1958	3,752
1953	4,079	1959	5,590
1954	3,135	1960	4,670
1955	3,900	1961	7,438
1956	3,692	1962	8,823

1. The Central Provinces Annual Public Health Report, 1921, p. 5.
2. Ibid, 1934, p. 5.

It was pointed out in the foregoing pages that death-rate in the District showed a salutary downward trend from the year 1951 onwards as compared to the decades in the first half of the Century. Fevers, respiratory diseases and other factors were generally the causes of deaths. Among fevers in the District, malaria occupied pride of place in its power of annihilation and used to be wide-spread. Frequency of epidemics is much reduced in the current Century as compared to the previous one. Number of deaths due to different diseases from 1951 onwards are given below.—

Year	Deaths From							
	Cholera	Smallpox	Malaria	Other fevers excluding Malaria	Dysentery and Diarrhoea	T.B.	Other Respiratory Diseases (Excluding T.B.)	All other causes
1951	47	600	2,650	8,066	552	65	383	1,373
1952	—	20	1,920	4,632	170	41	516	4,504
1953	456	42	9,369	1,529	520	31	723	3,730
1954	—	14	6,964	1,870	236	42	810	3,351
1955	—	557	5,907	1,997	135	25	769	2,145
1956	—	27	5,400	1,320	67	51	603	2,770
1957	83	89	6,069	3,413	242	6	1,092	2,224
1958	25	346	8,164	794	235	—	—	2,761
1959	—	—	—	7,274	178	3	551	2,879
1960	—	—	—	6,102	151	7	544	2,881
1961	—	—	.	10,537	303	74	720	2,698
1962	—	59	—	8,777	58	—	616	3,188
1963	—	—	—	8,116	—	22	619	2,030

DISEASES COMMON IN THE DISTRICT

In general the District is moderately healthy in most part of the year. Malaria is the only disease which is endemic throughout the year. Epidemics of small-pox and cholera do break-out every 3rd or 5th year but they are checked in time before they take virulent form.

The diseases common in the District are malaria, respiratory diseases, small-pox, cholera, leprosy, plague, tuberculosis, diarrhoea and dysentery and guinea-worm.

Malaria

Malaria is notoriously endemic in this District. It has been recorded that the highest mortality from malaria occurs in this District compared to any other district of the State. The average death-rate from malaria based on mid-year estimated population during the ten years' period of 1934-43 was 28 per thousand of population while the mean death-rate was 40.27 per thousand of population Scrutiny of the reports submitted by the Civil Surgeon of the District to the State

Public Health Department shows that they have invariably emphasised on the need of malaria control measures.

Anti-malaria measures in the form of improving sanitation, proper drainage and oiling of breeding places were taken in the urban areas wherever possible. Records show that the municipalities of Khandwa and Burhanpur used to spend about Rs. 1,000 every year for anti-malaria purposes since 1921. Later, as an encouragement to the municipal committees to undertake anti-malaria measures in their respective towns, Government offered to contribute half the cost. Khandwa Municipal Committee took advantage of this grant-in-aid and carried out anti-malaria measures but the result was not found spectacular for various reasons and limitations. No anti-malaria activity was ever started in the rural areas before 1947. In accordance with the policy of the Provincial Government to popularise the use of anti-malaria drugs in reducing sickness due to malaria, quinine, cinchona and quinine substitute mepacrine were pruchased from the Central Government and made available to the public at a nominal cost. Stock was sub-allotted to all Civil Surgeons and they were appointed the distributing authorities for quinine and its substitutes. Supply of quinine free of cost used to be made to the poorer tracts in the District by the District council.

The Government of Madhya Pradesh installed the first anti-malaria unit in the District at Harsud in the year 1947, followed by setting up of another unit at Borgaon in Khandwa Tahsil in the year 1948. For the first few months each unit was engaged in studying the local malarial conditions on a scientific basis with a view to deciding the nature of future programme of control measures.

The activities of Harsud anti-malaria unit were confined to the area of Harsud Tahsil only but Borgaon anti-malaria unit, though mainly operating in Khandwa Tahsil, extended its activities to a selected groups of villages of Burhanpur Tahsil as well.

The Malaria Medical Officer, Harsud, conducted a survey in 63 villages of Harsud Tahsil in the year 1947, which disclosed a spleen-rate of 51.44 per cent. In the year 1948 the Malaria Medical Officer, Anti-Malaria Unit Borgaon, also carried out a survey of a group of villages under its area of operation. The spleen-rate was found to be 70 to 100 per cent. Entomological survey was conducted by both these units in 1947-48 which consisted of the catching of mosquitoes, their identification and dissection, on a large scale. This work continued in subsequent years also with a wider coverage.

In Burhanpur Tahsil, the inhabitants of a group of 53 villages around Khaknar were induced in 1948 to contribute Rs. 2,000 per year to meet labour charges of a sub-unit, which was run on a co-operative basis. This unit worked for three years, and was dissolved by the order of Government in 1951 as the requisite contribution from public could not be raised by the persons who initially undertook to do so.

The two units at Harsud and Borgaon continued upto June, 1953. With the introduction of National Malaria Control Scheme in the State in that year both these units were amalgamated, with Khandwa as its headquarters. This new unit covered the entire Nimar District except Burhanpur and Khandwa municipal areas. Under the National Malaria Control Programme rapid surveys of Burhanpur and Khandwa towns were conducted in 1953-54 to ascertain prevalence of malaria and following results were obtained.—

	Spleen-Rate (percentage)	Average Enlarged Spleen-Rate (percentage)
Burhanpur	15.62	1.83
Khandwa	1.01	1.70

The results thus obtained showed higher incidence of malaria in Burhanpur town. Burhanpur town was included in this programme in the year 1955. In 1958, Khandwa town was also included in the programme.

All the structures, inhabited or uninhabited were sprayed with 75 per cent D.D.T. or Hexidole 950. The programme lasted for 5-6 months depending on the area. Generally two rounds of D.D.T. spray were given to each house. Thousands of tablets of mepacrine hydrochloride and resochin were distributed free of cost to the malaria victims by the malaria squads working in rural areas.

After the spraying work, survey of 20 per cent of villages in the District was carried out to assess the effectiveness of the spraying on the control of malaria. The results thus obtained showed that the incidence of malaria had declined considerably and it no longer remained a formidable public health problem.

The government of India subsequently decided to switch over from Control to Eradication programme from the 1st April, 1958, and accordingly the State Government implemented the Scheme from the 1st April, 1959. Malaria Eardication implies the reduction of parasite reserve in human population to such a negligible proportion that once it has been achieved there is no danger of resumption of local transmission. Eradication programme also provides that such human reservoir of infection be sought out and subjected to radical treatment resulting in the disappearance of parasite.

Under the new programme of Eradication of Malaria a unit was established at Khandwa in the year 1959, which was headed by a Malaria Medical Officer with his headquarters at Khandwa. Junior Malaria Inspector's offices at Burhanpur, Harsud and Khandwa were upgraded to Senior Malaria Inspector's offices. The Harda Tahsil of Hoshangabad District was attached to this unit and formed its 4th sub-unit. Subsequently, Harsud sub-unit was abolished. The assessment of the impact of spraying operation on the level of malaria transmission, and surveillance are the two main planks of Eradication programme. Before the

introduction of this programme in the District, i.e., in the year 1958-59 the spleen-rate was 7.00 which was reduced to 1.54 in 1959-60. The infant Parasite rate which was 0.2 in 1958-59 was reduced to 0.17 in 1959-60. The Juvenile Parasite rates for the same periods were 0.33 and 0.00, respectively. The progress of this Malaria Eradication Unit (which comprises besides East Nimar District, Harda Tahsil of Hoshangabad District) can be seen from the figures given below.—

Year	No. of villages Covered
1959	1,500
1960	1,512
1961	1,512
1962	1,512
1963	1,512
1964	1,492

In the year 1962-63, on the recommendation of Appraisal Team, D.D.T. spraying was stopped for Khandwa unit, which was considered to have entered a consolidation phase. Surveillance operations for detection of all fever cases were, however, intensified.

Respiratory Diseases

Respiratory diseases are classed as the second important cause for high mortality in the District, pneumonia, asthma and chronic bronchitis being the most common. Average deaths from respiratory diseases are estimated to be nearly 1,200 to 1,400 every year giving an average death-rate of 5.06. No apparent cause could be found for the prevalence of respiratory diseases but over-work, dusty atmosphere, hot and dry climate are considered responsible for respiratory troubles. They are mostly prevalent in the towns of Burhanpur, Khandwa and some villages of P.S. Pandhana, Chhegaon, Mundi, Shahpur, Khaknar, Harsud and Khalwa.

Small-pox

Amongst the infectious diseases, small-pox is responsible for a fairly large number of deaths. Children are more affected than the adults. Epidemic of small-pox breaks out in the District in every alternate year in the months of March to May and a large number of deaths occur due to this epidemic. On an average the death-rate due to small-pox comes to 0.1 to 1 per cent except during the epidemic when it rises upto even three per cent. The infection is always found to spread from the towns of the District to the adjoining villages. Blindness, corneal opacity and other eye complications are quite common amongst the recovered patients in the villages.

Ten vaccinators are employed by Janapada Sabhas to carry out vaccinations in the rural areas. Three Health Assistants and five Sanitary Inspectors of the Health Department also carry out the vaccination work in municipal areas.

There are three Municipal Vaccinators, two for Burhanpur town and one for Khandwa town to carry out vaccinations in the municipal areas.

Since 1945 a Vaccination Week is being celebrated throughout the District, every year in the second half of September to carry out preventive vaccinations *en masse*. During this week the staff engaged for vaccination work everywhere as also the Medical Officers in rural dispensaries carry out vaccinations intensively in their respective areas, as primary and re-vaccination are the only effective measures to stamp out the disease. Record of work done in this respect in the District can be seen from the following data.—

Year	Primary vaccinations	Re-vaccinations
1951	19,209	39,821
1952	16,036	7,584
1953	19,785	16,528
1954	19,605	17,620
1955	23,131	33,808
1956	22,489	14,989
1957	21,134	23,430
1958	20,531	35,669
1959	19,183	33,602
1960	23,583	20,548
1961	23,056	19,673
1962	32,788	1,45,880
1963	45,199	5,28,364

During the decade 1951-60, the number of deaths due to small-pox being 1,133 in the District was highest in the year 1958. In the year 1955 the number of deaths was 558; and in 1957, the number was 89. It may, however, be stated that the efforts at prevention and control of small-pox are bearing fruit, as no deaths due to the pox have been reported continuously for 1959, 1960 and 1961.

From October, 1962 the National Small-pox Eradication Programme was launched in the State under which 11 units were established throughout the State. Nimar District comes under the Unit established at Indore, under this Programme.

Cholera

Cholera in an epidemic form has been sporadic in character and has been found to frequent the District every 4th or 5th year. The infection is usually imported from outside the District. For example, in the year 1938 the people who attended Kumbha Mela brought the infection to this District in the month of April and the epidemic continued in virulent form in the subsequent months of July, August and September. It was after massive efforts that the epidemic was brought under control in the month of October. There were 3,060 deaths from this epidemic in the year. The infection is generally brought into the District when out of religious convictions about the sacred water of the Narmada, cholera-

infected dead bodies are thrown in the river instead of being burnt. This results in spreading the infection, through contaminated river water, in the villages situated on the down-stream. The months of the year favourable for the spread of this epidemic are generally May, June and July.

A Cholera Week is celebrated in the month of April every year. Preventive cholera inoculations are given on large scale by the staff of the Health Department. Nearly 70,000 inoculations are carried out every year. During the outbreak of epidemic an additional staff is engaged and inoculations are given nearly to all persons in the area. Disinfection of wells is done and strict supervision of the markets to stop the sale of infected food materials is enforced. In the time of emergency, temporary Cholera Regulations are also promulgated in the District,

There is no separate infectious diseases hospital either at Khandwa or at Burhanpur. Small isolation huts are constructed for the purpose to be used during emergency.

The last recorded visit of this epidemic in the District was in 1953. During the epidemic there were 9,690 cases and 456 deaths. At that time 1,15,474 preventive inoculations were given and 1,220 wells were disinfected. Temporary Cholera Regulations were promulgated in the District. Isolation ward was also opened in Khandwa town for cholera patients. There were no deaths due to cholera in the subsequent years upto 1956. In the years 1957 and 1958 deaths due to cholera were reported to be 83 and 25, respectively. The District was free from cholera during the years 1959-1963.

Leprosy

Leprosy is prevalent moderately in this District. Infection is more noticeable amongst the population living in Burhanpur, Shahpur and villages adjacent to district of Buldhana of the Maharashtra State. There being free movement and mixing of the population of these areas, the infection is transmitted to the population of its adjoining areas from those districts.

Anti-leprosy work was started in the year 1925. Provincial and district committees were formed and work in connection with the collection of funds was started. Lectures on leprosy were delivered by the Health Publicity Officer at Baby-shows and at big fairs. The Committee also allotted Rs. 100 for Khandwa to purchase specific remedies and make a start with the work.

In 1927 the proposal for the construction of Leprosy Clinic at Main Hospital, Khandwa was sanctioned and funds were provided by the State Government for the establishment of such a centre. In 1933, a leprosy centre at Burhanpur was started. Later on, more centres were established and by 1949 there were centres for Leprosy treatment at Burhanpur, Khandwa. Pandhana, Shahpur, Dapora, Lond and Nimbola.

The survey carried out in 1949 at Pandhana discovered 138 lepers. Another survey in 1949 in Shahpur showed another 450 lepers in 10 villages, giving an infection-rate of one per cent in the Tahsil. In 1956 under the Leprosy Control Scheme a subsidiary centre was established at Shahpur. At this centre there were three Medical Officers with adequate staff to carry out survey work and to arrange for complete free domiciliary treatment of lepers. Survey work on small scale detection and recording of cases was done by Sanitary Assistant Health Officer in 10 villages of Burhanpur Tahsil and also of Burhanpur including Lalbag municipal area in 1940-41.

Again, in the middle of 1956 survey on large scale (Class II) was effected under the scheme of Leprosy Council to detect and record as far as possible, every case of leprosy in villages of Burhanpur Tahsil and was completed by the end of 1956. The survey covered 117 villages with a population of 87,004 persons. Out of the 214 cases detected, 61 were found to be lepromatous and the rest non-lepromatous.

A more detailed survey (Class III) (Epidemiological) involving an examination of every individual man, woman and child in the area was carried out upto the end of July, 1958. This survey examined 11,119 persons in the villages inhabited by a total of 11,279 persons. Cases totalling 108 were detected out of which 26 were lepromatous and 82 non-lepromatous.

All the leprosy cases detected in the area are immediately taken on treatment roll and the treatment continued in their own houses and further the contacts of the patients are also checked up from time to time. Besides the above works, two leprosy clinics are also being run by this centre, one at Burhanpur and the other at Shahpur.

The total number of leprosy cases treated in the District in 1951 was 81. By 1960 the number increased to 1,138.

Plague

Plague though now rare, is a disease more of towns than of villages in this District. It seems to have lost its original spectacular virulence and power to spread swiftly. Sporadic cases do occur from time to time when the surrounding districts are affected, i.e., Hoshangabad and Betul which mostly suffer from this epidemic every other year. The records show that two to four deaths occur by the imported infection, but the infection is always controlled by prompt action. In 1926 the Deputy Commissioner, East Nimar, stated, "that the spread of plague in the district was very fortunately arrested by the prompt application of temporary plague regulation to the towns of the district."

An organised regular rat-destruction campaign is carred out throughout the year by Municipalities of Khandwa and Burhanpur. Nearly 15,000 to 20,000 rats are trapped and destroyed yearly at a cost of approximately Rs. 2,000 per annum.

Temporary Plague Regulations are enforced in the District as a precautionary measure whenever the adjacent districts are known to be infected. Isolated huts are constructed temporarily during the emergency for isolation and treatment of the patients. Plague inoculations are not given every year but only when there is an apprehension of its out-break. This disease has become rare nowadays and there are no cases on record after 1935.

Tuberculosis

On account of difficulties of diagnosis the figures of deaths from tuberculosis in this District are not reliable. Naturally any attempt to estimate the incidence of this disease with any reasonable degree of accuracy will be futile. There is reason to believe that the incidence is higher in urban than in rural areas. The development of transport facilities and influx of village people into towns are responsible for the spread of infection. This is resulting in an increase in incidence of this disease. Deaths due to tuberculosis increased from 128 in 1940 to 216 in 1953, giving an average death-rate of 0.26, being the third highest after malaria and respiratory diseases. Under the B.C.G. campaign in the year 1955, 1,08,640 persons were tested and 34,966 were vaccinated. The number of persons tested in 1959 was 2,29,114; while the number of persons vaccinated was 78,685.

There is only one tuberculosis clinic for treatment of out-door patients at Burhanpur with indoor accommodation for 16 patients. It is in the charge of an Assistant Medical Officer. Considering the number of patients coming for treatment the existing provision seems to be inadequate. The number of tuberculosis patients treated in 1951 was 639, which increased to 1,822 in 1960.

Diarrhoea and Dysentery

Amongst the gastro-intestinal diseases diarrhoea and dysentery are quite common in the rural as well as urban areas of the District. The infection starts from June every year at the onset of rains and prevail till the month of October. Pollution of drinking water by draining of surface rain water in rainy season as well as insanitary conditions for the disposal of rubbish and refuge are generally known to cause these complaints. Records show that nearly 10,000 cases occur in the District resulting in 250 to 300 deaths every year.

The villages known to suffer largely from this disease are Piplod, Pandhana, Chhegaon, Dhangaon and Mundi of Khandwa Tahsil, Harsud, Balri and Khalwa of Harsud Tahsil and Shahpur, Khaknar and Nimbola of Burhanpur Tahsil.

Improvement in water supply in the villages has been taken up by the Public Health staff of Development Blocks and there is at present much improvement. Similarly, a water supply scheme at Burhanpur is in hand.

Guinea Worm

This disease is found in some villages of Khandwa and Burhanpur Tahsils. It occurs due to the drinking of infected water in which the worm lays the eggs

or whenever the infected man puts his legs in the water for washing his sores or other purposes. Thus it is common in the area where step-wells are constructed. Nearly 50 to 80 cases are reported every year from the rural areas. Steps are being taken to convert step-wells into draw-wells. Incidence of this disease is reported to be decreasing.

Filaria

In the year 1963 there were four persons with filarial disease at Burhanpur in the District. The survey work which was in progress in the District was completed in the year 1963. The number of persons actually examined in Khandwa and Burhanpur towns (for microfilaria in the night blood) were 1,532 and 2,163, respectively.

PUBLIC HOSPITALS AND DISPENSARIES

Organisation of Medical Department

The Civil Surgeon continues to be the administrative head of the Medical Department. He is in over-all charge of the Government hospitals and dispensaries, and has also a right of inspection over all private dispensaries in the District. He is also the Superintendent of the District Jail. He was looking after both the Medical and Public Health wings of the Department until 1959 when an additional Civil Surgeon was posted to the District to look after the spheres of public health and primary health activities of Local bodies and Development Blocks. The Civil Surgeon is assisted by a number of assistant surgeons and assistant medical officers and other medical and para-medical personnel who are posted in Main Hospital, Khandwa, and other dispensaries situated at different places in the District. The Additional Civil Surgeon has been provided with separate health staff. He has to seek the advice of the Civil Surgeon as and when necessary.

Hospitals and Dispensaries

As reported in the Nimar District Gazetteer (1908), the District had then six dispensaries, of which the main dispensary at Khandwa and the Burhanpur dispensary had accommodation for indoor patients, while the others at Shahpur, Pandhana, Mandhata, and Harsud gave outdoor relief only. Besides the regular dispensaries there were the usual jail and police hospitals at the headquarters of the District. Till 1945 there were 13 dispensaries including one for women. At present the District has 24 hospitals and dispensaries and 10 primary health centres with 30 sub-centres attached to them.

Number of Beds

During 1907-08 the Khandwa main dispensary had accommodation for 30 in-patients, and that at Burhanpur for 20. During 1927 the total number of beds both for male and female available in the various hospitals and dispensaries of the District was 57 and 25, respectively. Since 1927 there has been a marked increase in the bed-strength of various Government managed and aided hospitals and

dispensaries of the District. During 1960-61 total bed-strength both for male and female was 265.

Expenditure

During 1871 the manner in which the Government aid was rendered was by appointment of an Indian Medical Officer in the charge of the dispensary and supply of certain European medicines. All other expenditure such as construction and repairs of buildings, furniture, etc., was met by local subscription and contribution and by municipal and other grants. Committee of management consisted of influential residents and Civil Surgeon who used to visit and inspect the dispensaries. The committee of management had all the control over the expenditure of the dispensary funds. The average annual income of the dispensaries for the decade ending 1901, was Rs. 12,600 of which Rs. 4,500 were contributed by Government Rs. 6,000 by local funds and rest was realised from subscriptions. During 1927 the income of the Government managed and aided medical institutions was Rs. 44,828. The Table given below shows the expenditure incurred on medical and public health activities in the District from 1951-52 to 1964-65.—

(In Rs.)

Year	Medical	Public Health
1951-52	14,575	9,118
1952-53	18,399	11,789
1953-54	21,853	16,544
1954-55	28,678	20,116
1955-56	38,989	25,996
1956-57	48,738	31,815
1957-58	81,722	54,727
1958-59	164,385	88,788
1959-60	189,400	96,915
1960-61	235,600	139,800
1961-62	263,977	176,829
1962-63	288,652	198,718
1963-64	391,446	239,151
1964-65	599,917	289,009

An account of the main hospitals and dispensaries of the District is given in the following paragraphs.

Main Hospital, Khandwa

This hospital is the premier medical institution of the District. The hospital staff is headed by the Civil Surgeon, who is assisted by one assistant surgeon, three assistant medical officers, one matron, eight nurses and other para-medical personnel Its present bed-strength is 116 and includes both, beds for male and female patients. The hospital has been remodelled recently and a new building

constructed at a cost of eight lakhs of rupees. It is equipped with facilities for X-Ray, pathological laboratory, operation theatre, etc.

Nimar Hospital for Women and Children, Khandwa

In order to provide adequate medical aid to the large number of women and children a separate hospital for women and children was started under the Central Provinces. Branch of Countess of Dufferin's Fund for supplying medical aid to the women of India.The staff of this hospital is headed by a Medical Superintendent who is assisted by one woman assistant surgeon, one woman assistant medical officer, one matron, one sister tutor and other para-medical personnel. The hospital has accommodation of 63 beds for the treatment of indoor patients with special arrangement for dealing with maternity cases.

Jail and Police Hospitals, Khandwa

There is one Jail dispensary meant for the prisoners of the District Jail and a separate Police Hospital for the police establishment. There is arrangement for 15 beds to treat the indoor patients in the Police Hospital. The staff of this hospital consists of one assistant medical officer and a male nurse.

Nehru Hospital, Burhanpur

One male assistant surgeon, one woman assistant surgeon and two assistant medical officers and five nurses are working in the Hospital. Along with the general outdoor patients department, there is an accommodation of 89 beds for the treatment of indoor patients. Facilities for X-Ray and pathological tests and an operation theatre exist in the Hospital. A family planning clinic is attached to the Hospital.

Tuberculosis Clinic, Burhanpur

Since 1957 a tuberculosis clinic has been started as extension to Nehru Hospital. There is an outdoor patients department and 16 bedded arrangement for indoor patients. An assistant medical officer is looking after the T.B. Wing. A sub-centre of leprosy clinic is also working here.

Railway Hospital, Khandwa

A hospital is maintained by the Central Railway at Khandwa for the treatment of its employees.

Tapti Mills Dispensary, Burhanpur

It is a dispensary for employees of the Mills and is in charge of one assistant medical officer. There is only outdoor patients department.

Besides, at Burhanpur there is a dispensary administered by the State Government for the medical treatment of mills' employees. It is working according to the standards laid down by the Employees State Insurance Corporation.

At Nepanagar the management of National Newsprint and Paper Mills is running a dispensary for the employees of the Mills under an assistant medical officer.

Lalbagh Dispensary, Burhanpur

It is running only outdoor patient department and is looked after by one assistant medical officer.

Till 1958 all dispensaries and hospitals were run by Local bodies e.g., municipalities and janapadas but since 1st August, 1958 all these dispensaries and hospitals of the District have been taken up by the State Government for purposes of maintenance and administration.

Medical Facilities in Rural areas

Government solicitude for medical aid in rural areas finds its practical expression in the care of rural population of the District through various dispensaries situated in important villages and through primary health centres and attached sub-centres established during the Second Plan period. In Khandwa Tahsil (rural) there are 11 dispensaries which are located at Pandhana, Piplod, Punasa, Sahejla, Mandhata, Arud, Surgaon, Mohana, Diwal, Dhangaon and Barud. The first four are under the charge of assistant medical officers. The others are run by medical assistants. At Pandhana a ward having two beds for indoor patients has also been provided.

In the rural area of Burhanpur Tahsil, there are four dispensaries at Lalgarh, Doifodia, Khaknar and Paretha. Lalgarh dispensary is manned by an assistant medical officer and others by medical assistants Khaknar dispensary has been provided with seven beds for treatment of indoor patients. Harsud Tahsil (rural) has dispensaries at Baldi and Khalwa villages each attended by a medical assistant.

Primary Health Centres

A primary health centre is a small unit which provides an integrated form of medical care both curative and preventive to the people living in the area. The centre is located at a convenient place preferably at the headquarters of the Community Development Block and is the focus from where health activities radiate into the area covered by the Development Block. A primary health centre is usually staffed by a qualified medical officer, one health visitor, four midwives, one compounder, one sanitary inspector and three to four other ancillary staff. From amongst the staff at the centre, health visitor deserves a special mention. She has a special training in the problem of health needs of mothers and children. She is also a trained midwife and supervises the work of the midwives and trained *dais*. They have facilities for treatment of six to nine indoor patients. Six of those 10 centres have been provided with UNICEF vehicles for rendering health services in rural areas.

A list of primary health centres functioning in the District is given below.—

Name of Tahsil	Name of Primary Health Centre	Name of Sub-Centre
Khandwa	1. Jawar	1. Bhamgarh 2. Sahejala 3. Kalmukhi
	2. Mundi	1. Punasa 2. Mohna 3. Mandhata
	3. Pandhana	1. Diwal 2. Piplod 3. Borgaon Bujurg
	4. Chhegaon Makhan	1. Barur 2. Chichgaon 3. Alimadpur
Harsud	5. Harsud	1. Chhanera 2. Borkheda 3. Piplani
	6. Khalwa	1. Patgjan 2. Rajur 3. Khar
	7. Baldi	1. Jabgaon 2. Killod 3. Pamakhedi
Burhanpur	8. Shahpur	1. Ichhapur 2. Phopnar 3. Loni
	9. Bodarli	1. Daryapur 2. Badjhiri 3. Sangrampur
	10. Khaknar	1. Tukaithad 2. Sarola 3. Sindhkheda

Health assistants posted in the tahsils and sanitary staff of the Development Blocks tour the villages and educate the people in public health measures by holding meetings, group discussions, cinema-shows and by arranging educative exhibition stalls at the principal fairs of the District.

Specialist Institutions

There is no specialist medical institution in the District except leprosy clinic at Shahpur. The anti-rabic and T.B. centres are attached to the District Hospital, Khandwa. Burhanpur hospital has also got a T.B. clinic. All anti-rabic cases are referred to the District hospital.

Maternity and Child-Welfare

The history of child welfare in this District is not very old. In 1926 a special welfare committee of the Red Cross Society organised child welfare centres at Khandwa and Burhanpur. They were recognised as A Grade centres and an annual grant of Rs. 2,400 was sanctioned. Grants in aid of Rs. 550 and Rs. 200 for equipment were also made by the Government of Central Provinces and Berar for the period from 15th October, 1926 to 31st March, 1927. A National Baby Week was organised and celebrated early in 1927 by this centre at Khandwa and prizes in shape of ornaments, clothes and toys were given to the children.

This centre actually started functioning from December, 1928 as a full-fledged unit at Lady Butler Hospital at Khandwa. In 1928, it was required to undertake the Provincial *Dais* Training Scheme in which eight *dais* were taken up for training at a time. The classes were held once a week. In 1929, the number of *dais* was increased from 15 to 25. Ante-natal clinics for the expectant mothers were also started at Khandwa.

By 1933, Khandwa town had another centre. Facilities for midwives' training were created at Women's Hospital, Khandwa, in 1935. The training was to last for two years. Later, four more centres were started. In 1936 there were six child-welfare centres in the District, *viz.*,

1. Khandwa Town Centre (Lady Butler Centre)
2. Ghaspura Centre, Khandwa.
3. Sanwara Centre, Burhanpur.
4. Sindhipura Centre, Burhanpur.
5. Naya Mohalla Centre, Burhanpur.
6. Loni Centre, Burhanpur.

Child Welfare Centres at Borgaon (Khandwa Tahsil) and at Mahajanpeth at Burhanpur were started in 1938. The centres also carried out special propaganda against administration of opium to small children which was a common practice in the villages.

All those centres were run under the Red Cross Society and the following trained staff was made available to them.—

	Urban	Rural
Health Visitors	9	3
Dais	38	23

One more centre was added in 1939 at Chhegaon Makhan.

In 1941, only seven centres were in existence—two centres each at Khandwa and Burhanpur, while Loni, Borgaon and Chhegaon Makhan had one each.

In 1953, the child welfare centre at Borgaon was closed. During the First Five Year Plan a child welfare centre was started at Shahpur in Shahpur Development Block of Burhanpur Tahsil under the Central Government Scheme. A health visitor and midwife were put in charge of the Centre. Three sub-centres were also opened in the nearby villages, i.e., Icchapur, Phopnar and Loni, which work under the supervision of the Shahpur Centre. Similarly, in Harsud Tahsil a maternity and child welfare centre was put up along with the primary health centre, in Harsud Development Block, with its sub-centres at Channera, Piplani and Borkheda. The primary health centre, Jawar under Development Block, Khandwa, also organised a child welfare centre at Jawar with its sub-centres at Kalmukhi and Sahejala.

The number of maternity and child welfare centres decreased in subsequent years due to conversion of some of them into primary health centres with sub-centres attached to them which provide basic health services to the people. In 1962-63 and 1963-64 there was only one maternity and child welfare centre working at Pandhana.

Besides, by the end of the Second Plan period there existed 27 *matru grihas*[1] in the rural areas of the District. Owing to insanitary conditions existing in the home, *matru grihas* have been provided in the villages where women can go for their confinement with the indigenous practising *dai* in attendance.

Provision also exists for giving institutional midwifery services through maternity home and primary health centres. Since it is not possible to afford institutional care to entire population, domiciliary maternity care has been provided through primary health centres.

Training of Dais and Nurses

To supplement domiciliary maternity care in the villages covered by the primary health centres, training of indigenous *dais* practising in the District has also been undertaken during the Second Plan period. Two *dais* training centres, *viz.*, Harsud and Shahpur were opened in 1959-60. These two centres trained 14 *dais* in 1960-61. One more centre was started at Mundi in 1961-62. The Shahpur centre remained closed during the year 1962-63.

Besides, the District has one nurses' training centre which is attached to Nimar Hospital, Khandwa. It was opened during the year 1959. The Centre prepares auxiliary nurses-cum-midwives.

Ayurvedic and Unani Dispensaries

In addition to the medical relief through Allopathic system of medicine, a net-work of 12 Ayurvedic dispensaries exists in rural areas of the District. These dispensaries are managed by State Medical Department and Janapada Sabhas.

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1. Health Services in Madhya Pradesh, 1956-61 (Atlas) p. 14.

There are also two privately run *Aushadhalayas* at Khandwa and Burhanpur. One is styled as Shri Digambar Jain Parmarthik Aushadhalaya. One Seth Chhunilal created a charitable trust by donating Rs. 40,000 to run a charitable *Ayurvedic Aushadhalaya* at Khandwa, where medicines are given free of charge to the needy. About 2,500 persons receive benefit from this per year. An experienced *Vaidya* treats the cases. It is managed by a committee. Ayurvedic Mahavidyalaya, Burhanpur, has its Ayurvedic Dharmartha Aushdhalaya which provides *Ayurvedic* treatment to the patients. It is attended by a qualified *Vaidya*. On an average 70 to 80 persons take advantage of this dispensary.

The tahsil-wise distribution of the *Ayurvedic* dispensaries in the District is given below.—

Khandwa Tahsil.—	1. Kalmukhi
	2. Kohadad
	3. Bhagwanpura
Burhanpur Tahsil.—	1. Sival
	2. Dhulkot
	3. Phopnar
	4. Dedtalai
Harsud Tahsil.—	1. Borisarai
	2. Kharkalan
	3. Jabgaon
	4. Padlia
	5. Selda

In Harsud Tahsil a Homoepathic dispensary is working at Billod.

PRIVATE HOSPITALS

Until 1931 there were only 16 private medical practitioners in the District. In the year 1959-60 the number was 47. The majority of the practitioners are in the towns and only four are practicing in the villages. The distribution of the private medical practitioners and the specialists is detailed below.—

Khandwa Tahsil		
	Khandwa town	18 Allopaths
		3 Eye specialists
		4 Dentists
		1 T.B specialist
	Mundi village	2 Private practitioners
Burhanpur Tahsil		
	Burhanpur Town	12 Allopaths
		1 Eye specialist
		4 Dentists
Harsud Tahsil		
	Rural	2 Practitioners

In addition, there were three *Ayurvedic* practitioners in Khandwa and six *Ayurvedic* and *Unani* practitioners in Burhanpur.

Indian Medical Association Branch

A branch of Indian Medical Association has been formed at Khandwa. All qualified general practitioners including Government doctors are members of the Association. Monthly meetings of the Association are held where subjects of general medical interest are discussed.

Family Planning

With a view to educating the people in the advantages of limitation of families, family planning was initiated in the District during the Second Five Year Plan Family planning enables the parents to space their children and limit their number. It is also conducive to the development of better health for mothers and children. In 1961, family planning centres were working at Khandwa, Mundi, Jawar, Harsud and Shahpur. In 1964-65, the number of such centres increased to 16. Some of the primary health centres have been attached to family planning centres.

The Table shows the progress of sterilisation work in the District.—

Year	Vasectomy	Tube-tying
1959	59	78
1960	26	94
1961	32	122
1962	29	182
1963	111	227
1964	193	242

SANITATION

With a view to giving professional support to the efforts which were made for sometime for the conservancy of towns all over the then Province of Central Provinces and Berar, the medical officer of each district was appointed the *ex-officio* sanitary officer of the local and municipal committees in the year 1864-65.[1] The Medical officer made conservancy and sanitation of the chief town of the district his special care, and he advised the civil authorities on all sanitary points which may arise in outlying towns. Sanitary sub-committees were also appointed by all the principal local committees. A set of brief practical sanitary suggestions was furnished to principal landholders for gradual implementation.[2] But the main difficulty encountered was the insufficiency of the funds available for any improve-

1. Central Provinces Administration Report, 1864-65, p. 57.
2. Ibid.

ment,[1] though general conservancy and education were the principal heads of expenditure of municipal committees. In rural areas Village Sanitation Act continued to be in force which covered some principal villages of the District. The provisions of this Act were in operation upto 1948 when due to the introduction of gram panchayats, the management and administrative control of the villages under sanitation were assigned to them.[2]

Now, the public health and sanitation of the District are looked after by Public Health Department of the State Government and the Local bodies—municipal committees in urban areas and Janapad Sabhas and Community Development Blocks in rural areas.

In urban areas of the District there are two municipal committees at Khandwa and Burhanpur. The Civil Surgeon, however, functions in an advisory capacity to the municipal committees in respect of public health and sanitary problems. The municipal committees have their separate health and sanitary staff as detailed below.—

Khandwa Municipality

1. Health Officer —1
2. Sanitary Inspectors —2
3. Sweepers —275

Burhanpur Municipality

1. Sanitary Inspectors —3
2. Sweepers —330

In rural areas of the District responsibility for the improvement of health conditions and sanitary arrangements rests with the Janapada Sabhas and Public Health Department. The Janapada Sabhas have their own Sanitary Inspectors who supervise the sanitary arrangements carried out by the gram panchayats. The Public Health Department maintains one health assistant in each tahsil with touring dispensaries. They carry out preventive inoculation and vaccination in villages. The assistant medical officers of the rural dispensaries also look after the public health work in the villages falling within five miles radius of the dispensaries and carry out vaccination and inoculation under the orders of the Civil Surgeon. They also conduct the medical examination of the school children in the villages falling in the area under their jurisdiction to evaluate their health status and to find out if they are suffering from any physical defects or disabilities and to take suitable action for their correction.

1. Ibid, 1873-74, p. 113.
2. The Central Provinces and Berar Annual Public Health Report, 1948, p. 16.

During the Second Plan period, Government embarked upon comprehensive health service facilities for rural population through the agency of the Community Development Blocks in the District. Improvement of the health of the community was made an integral part of the activities of Blocks and a sure sign of the success of the Development Programme. Primary health centres with sub-centres were established in the Block areas. The sanitary inspector attached to the centres visits the villages frequently and gives advice and instructions for the improvement of environmental sanitation and takes necessary steps for the control of communicable diseases. He takes active part in health education programme. The basic services provided by the primary health centres are.—

(1) Medical care,

(2) Maternal and child health services including family planning,

(3) Health education,

(4) Control of communicable diseases,

(5) Sanitation of the environment, and

(6) Collection of vital statistics.

The medical officer of the primary health centre is also the health officer of the area at which the centre serves and exercises the statutory powers of the health or sanitary authority.

Activities of Health and Sanitary Organisation

In urban areas of the District little has been done towards slum clearance and laying of underground drainage. There are only two towns in the District, i.e., Khandwa and Burhanpur having protected water supply. In the former town water is supplied from Moghat reservoir after chlorination. Water supplied from other sources, *viz.*, Rameshwar well, Ganesh Talai well and Bhairo Talao is treated with bleaching powder. Water from Moghat reservoir is supplied by gravitation system and from the others through pumping. Khuni Bhandara and Sukha Bhandara are the main sources of water supply to the town of Burhanpur. These sources are continuing from the Mughal period. Water being clean does not require filtration. However, it is chlorinated before supply. There is a Superintendent of water works for each town. Under the Superintendent of water works, there are various technical and non-technical personnel responsible for the distribution and maintenance of water works. The quality of the water at both the places is good.

In rural areas of the District under the agency of the Development Blocks much headway has been made in the direction of improvement of sanitation end water supply arrangement during the course of Second Plan. With the same end in view 78 wells were constructed during the First and Second Five Year Plans. Repairs were also carried out to some wells.

CHAPTER XVII

OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

Labour Welfare

The concept of Labour Welfare even in a country like India where a major portion of Labour force comprises workers in agriculture, happens to be associated with the workers in industries, and that too in factory industries. This has been so because in the current Century, with two World Wars the industrial labour has emerged as an organized force to reckon with. Socialistic revolution in the Soviet Union in the first quarter of the Century and propagation of socialistic ideas elsewhere in the West made industrial labour a factor aspiring for political power. In India, therefore, after achievement of Independence, when socialistic pattern of society was sought to be established, speedy statutory measures were taken to guarantee the welfare of Labour in industries.

Beginning of the statutory welfare measures might be traced to the introduction of Indian Factories Act (Act XV) of 1881. This Act intended to regulate the employment of children in big factories and providing fencing for machinery for protecting the workers against injury. Since then the scope of this Act has been considerably widened, and made comprehensive in the year 1948, when Government of India passed the Factories Act, 1948. Chapter V of this Act deals with the welfare facilities to be provided for workers. The Factories Act, 1948, is applicable to all the factories in the District, employing 10 or more workers and using power, and 20 or more workers without power. Number of factories in the District coming under the purview of this Act was 84 in the year 1962.

As a result of the working of the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, which places an obligation upon the factory owners to pay compensation to workers for accidents in the course of employment, Rs. 5,400 were paid in the year 1958, Rs. 7,542.16 in 1959, Rs. 12,621.89 in 1960 and Rs. 3,155.82 in 1961, as compensation.

The Maternity Benefits Act, 1958, ensures payment of cash maternity benefits to women employees in the factories for certain periods before and after confinement. Nine months' service preceding the date of notice is a qualifying condition for the receipt of such benefits. The amount of benefit is 7/12ths of average daily earnings or 75 paise per day, whichever is higher.

Besides above enactments, an important step in the sphere of social security measures was taken by the Government of India by enacting Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948, and Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952. The Employees' State Insurance Scheme framed under the Act, was made applicable to Burhanpur centre in the District in the year 1956. This Scheme was made applicable to 11 industrial establishments, from which 3,500 workers were insured. Medical care under the Scheme is provided through service system, and was extended to the families of insured workers in the year 1959. Under the Scheme two dispensaries are functioning at Burhanpur. The number of insured persons and members of their families receiving medical care under the Scheme from 1956 to 1962 was.—

Year	Medical care given to insured persons	Medical care given to the families
1956	20,839	—
1957	50,136	—
1958	57,675	—
1959	42,575	83,800
1960	31,929	97,305
1961	54,149	71,002
1962	50,890	68,797

Different cash benefits given to the insured persons under the Scheme from 1958 to 1961 were.—

(in Rs.)

Year	Sickness benefit	Maternity benefit	Temporary Disablement benefit	Permanent Disablement benefit	Other benefits	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1958	73,889.92	1,273.80	4,700.42	18.03	579.37	80,461.54
1959	40,709.03	631.85	3,721.04	116.55	621.35	45,799.82
1960	23,450.34	588.00	3,223.38	538.23	1,310 58	29,110.53
1961	26,894.96	1,088.44	3,295.41	950.59	2,038.60	34,268.00

Inpatient treatment has been arranged at Nehru Hospital, Burhanpur where three general beds are reserved for the insured persons. Provision is also made for the part-time Medical Referees, Specialist Services, etc.

The Employees' Provident Fund Scheme framed under the Act of 1952, which has been made applicable to different industries from time to time, covers 12 factory establishments in the District and 188 workers from these factories.

Under the Madhya Pradesh Minimum Wages Fixation Act, 1962, monthly and daily rates of minimum wages payable, have been fixed in the different industries in the District included in the Schedule to the Act of 1948. Payment of these rates of wages has been made effective from the 1st January, 1959. Some of these

Scheduled Industries are bidi making, oil industry, *dal* milling, printing, Local authorities, construction or maintenance of roads and building operations, public motor transport, etc. Different rates of minimum wages are fixed for Burhanpur and Khandwa towns, and for other places in the District having a population of 5,000 and above. Similarly, different rates of minimum wages are fixed for different categories of workers, *viz.*, clerical, skilled, semi-skilled, unskilled, male, female, etc.

The minimum wages for casual employees in agriculture, male and female, have also been fixed under the Madhya Pradesh Minimum Wages Fixation Act. This has been made applicable all over Madhya Pradesh with effect from the 1st January, 1959. Despite varying conditions of work and difference in mode of payment in different regions, three categories of areas have been evolved for the purpose of enforcing the wage-rates fixed for each of them.

The Central Provinces and Berar Shops and Establishments Act, 1947 was extended to Khandwa and Burhanpur towns of the District, vide Labour Department, Madhya Pradesh Government, Notification No 165-1859-XXII dated 19th January, 1950. Later, from 1st January, 1959, the Madhya Pradesh Shops and Establishments Act, 1958, was made applicable. This Act regulates the working hours, holidays, leave, etc., of the shop assistants. The following Table shows the working of this Act in Burhanpur and Khandwa towns of the District from 1959 to 1961.—

S. No.	Details About Working	1959	1960	1961
1.	Number of Shops, Commercial Establishments etc., covered under the Act	2,382	2,685	3,143
2.	Number of persons employed	2,614	3,007	3,167

Apart from the above measures, under the Subsidised Industrial Housing Scheme, controlled by the Madhya Pradesh Housing Board, 100 tenements were constructed with a total cost of Rs. 2,30,600 at Lalbag, Burhanpur, upto 1960-61. These quarters are allotted to the industrial workers at a rate of Rs. 7.50 per quarter per month plus Rs. 1.67 as sanitation and cess charges. Hundred more tenements under the same Scheme were constructed at Nepanagar in the year 1961-62.

As a part of the Craftman Training Scheme launched by the Government of India, the Industrial Training Institute, Khandwa, was started from 1958. During the Second Five Year Plan period the strength of 320 trainees was sanctioned in which an addition of 96 more trainees has been made in the Third Five Year Plan. The training is imparted in 12 trades, *viz.*, those of Blacksmith, Draughtsman (Mechanical), Electrician, Fitter, Machinist, Moulder, Turner, Pattern-Maker, Wireman, Welder, Surveyor and Motor I.C.E. Upto January, 1962, the number of trainees trained was 276 in five batches. On 30th September, 1962, the number of trainees on roll in the Institute was 133.

A Labour Welfare Centre was established at the Labour colony, Lalbag, Burhanpur on 1st June, 1956. The activities provided in the Centre include indoor and outdoor games, library, reading room, cultural and recreational programmes, adult education classes, celebration of national festivals and tournaments. In addition of these, necessary arrangements have also been made for primary treatment of sick labourers. Under its auspices, the first Neat and Clean House Competition was organised in January, 1961. Total attendance at the Centre from 1957 to 1961 was 52,000 An amount of Rs. 44,620 was sanctioned for the construction of a building for the centre under the aegis of the Labour Department, of the State Government. From 1958-59 to 1961-62, an amount of Rs. 25,738.53 has been spent in running the Centre.

Welfare Activities by Individual Employers

The Burhanpur Tapti Mills Ltd., Burhanpur, carried on welfare work on a small-scale as early as in 1929, when it provided 232 *kutcha* and 216 *pucka* rooms either free of rent or with rent ranging upto eight annas per month per room Currently, the Mills are providing welfare facilities such as, working facilities, first aid appliances, canteen, *creche*, etc., under the Factories Act, 1948. The canteen is run by a Canteen Managing Committee on no profit basis. Every year the Management give a subsidy to it so that it may be able to sell articles at cheaper rates. The canteen is commodious and well-furnished. There are two trained *ayas* to look after about 50 babies of the women workers daily. The children are provided with free milk and refreshment. The toys have also been provided for the children. As regards non-statutory welfare activities, the Mills have constructed *chawls* for its workers near the Mill area. The rent charged varies from Re. 1 to Rs. 6 per month depending upon the accommodation. The Management have started the Burhanpur Tapti Mills Employees' Co-operative Society. There are about 1,100 members. The Management are rendering help to the Society by way of providing staff, stationery and facilities of recovering loan. At the initial stage, the Mills advanced interest-free amount of Rs. 15,000 to run the Society and from time to time advances are given. For running the Higher Secondary School, the Management give annual financial assistance to the Lalbag Education Society and encourage workers to send their children for schooling. The Janmashtami festival is celebrated on a large-scale and on that day famous Indian artists and musicians are invited. The Mills have a well-equipped dispensary, where free medical aid is given to the workers. There is a qualified Doctor, a Compounder and a Dresser As regards recreational facilities, there is a football ground, gymnasium and arrangements for sports and games.

The provisions of the Factories Act, 1948 were applied to the National Newsprint and Paper Mills, Ltd., Nepanagar, from 1953. In 1954, the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, and the Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952, were made applicable. Under the former Act, compensation amounting to Rs. 7,783.63 has been paid to workers from 1954 to 1961. The benefits under the Employees' State Insurance Act have not been extended to this concern. However, it is paying

the Employer's special contribution since 1955 as stipulated under the Act. From 1957, the Maternity Benefit Act has been enforced, and under the Act benefits amounting to Rs. 2,228 have been given up to 1961. As regards non-statutory welfare facilities, a welfare centre and a club have been provided for workers. There is a library and a reading-room and facilities for indoor and out-door games are also provided. In the welfare centre, dramatic performances, educative film-shows, cultural and recreational programmes are organised. Festivals, such as, Durga Puja, Ganesh Utsava, etc., are also celebrated. Medical facilities including indoor and outdoor treatment and proper hospitalisation, if necessary, have also been provided. A Co-operative society, a Primary School and a Higher Secondary School have been established. For purchase of cycles, provision for grant of loans to workers has been made. The Management of the Power House, Nepanagar, is running a welfare centre and a club, through a committee consisting of 50 per cent members representing the Nepanagar Vidyut Karmachari Sangh. The Board contributes 50 per cent of the total contribution. On no profit and no loss basis, a canteen is also being run. Free medical facilities are provided to workers and their families.

Voluntary Organisations

During the Tapti Mills strike, the Burhanpur Tapti Mills Mazdoor Sangh came into being at Burhanpur on 13th December, 1935. It was registered on 29th November, 1939 and affiliated to Hind Mazdoor Sabha. This recognised Union has its own office building called the Kamgar Bhawan at Lalbag, where it is running a library and a reading-room, It started with 700 members and has made steady progress. On 31st March, 1962, the number of its members was 1,409 and its property worth Rs. 30,667.64.

In the Lalbag area there is a concentration of railway and Tapti Mills workers. For the educational advancement of children of the workers, a voluntary organisation called the Lalbag Education Society was established in 1944. The Lalbag Higher Secondary School was started by the Society on 1st August, 1944, with two sections of fifth class. In 1948, it was raised to the Middle School and later to the Higher Secondary School status. From 1956-57 to 1961-62, the Society received contributions amounting to Rs. 6,250 from Tapti Mills, Rs. 9,160.6 from workers and Rs. 9,606.76 from others.

There is one Employers' organisation called the Burhanpur Biri Manufacturers' Association at Burhanpur. The Association have no programme for welfare of workers.

PROHIBITION

The Prohibition Enquiry Committee of the Planning Commission. Government of India 1954-55 in its survey of the historical background of Prohibition observed that "Various methods of controlling the drink traffic were tried at different times with varying degrees of success. Such attempts, however, were few

and far between, and at any rate before the advent of British rule there seems to have been no attempt on the part of Government to derive any material revenue from the traffic in drink and drugs." It was, therefore, the genius of our foreign rulers that saw in the excise duty on alcoholic liquor the possibilities of maximum revenue with minimum of consumption. This policy was considered "the most powerful aid to the cause of temperance." The general lines of this excise policy were enunciated officially by the Government of India early in the year 1905 in their Resolution for the guidance of Provincial Governments. Encouraging results in the shape of increase in excise revenue along with fall in consumption were cited in official reports. In the year 1919-20, there was an instance in this District of a contractor being warned on suspicion of permitting drunkenness. Better crop condition, especially in the cotton zone of the Province, and rise in wages used to be the indicators to the Government to consider raising the rates of duties on liquor.

In the year 1920-21, the Non-Co-operation Movement in the Freedom Struggle also initiated anti-drink campaign. In Nimar District the Non-Co-operation Movement was initiated with the Khilafat Movement at Burhanpur in the month of March, 1920. Anti-drink movement formed a part of it and had an impact on the Excise Department in the month of September. After the National Congress session held at Nagpur in the month of December 1920, the anti-drink movement gained momentum and the picketing of liquor shops was renewed with vigour. A further field for its activity was provided by the public excise auctions held in January and February to dispose of shops for 1921-22. Riots and hooliganism occurred at the auction sales in different districts As a result, auctions of liquor shops in Nimar District were abandoned. Thereafter, in the August Session of the Legislative Council of the Province in the year 1921, a resolution was brought forward, recommending to the Government to stop within as short a period as practicable the sale of country liquor throughout the whole Province. In the course of the debate that followed, the then Government accepted a policy of prohibition as the ultimate goal. Government, however, was unable to set a definite time limit for attainment of this objective. Administrative measures like reducing drinking facilities and the number of shops, limitation of supplies, curtailment of facilities for drinking at fairs and festivals, etc., were decided to be pursued with vigour. In the year 1921-22, the Government noted "a remarkable fall in the consumption of all forms of alcohol and drugs", as well as reduction in excise revenue. The total receipts from distillary spirits which was Rs. 6.52 lakhs in 1920-21 was reduced in 1921-22 to Rs. 3 35 lakhs It was observed in the Excise Administration Report for 1923, that "the surprising reduction in licit consumption witnessed in recent years could not have been achieved but for the mandate which the Department received from the last local Legislative Council. The action of the elected representatives in that Council in forcing a change of excise policy upon Government has undoubtedly had good results." It was a considered opinion of the then authorities concerned with excise administration that attempts to secure the cessation of consumption of alcoholic beverages by compulsion alone were bound to fail, whether the compulsion is applied by the

Government of the day or by people themselves and their organizations. They regretted the apathy of the leaders of opinion towards attempts to start a serious temperance movement on a permanent basis. It is, therefore, with a view to directing the efforts of persons to assist Government in its policy of securing ultimately the prohibition of liquor that Government framed rules for the payment of grants-in-aid in the year 1929 to recognized associations. The grant was to be expended on constitutional propaganda by means of pamphlets, lectures and the like to educate public opinion on the advantages of temperance and moderation in the use of intoxicating drinks and drugs with a view to the ultimate abolition of consumption of intoxicating drinks and drugs by the will of the people. However, no temperance association was found registered in subsequent years throughout the province and consequently no grant-in-aid could be disbursed.

In the year 1930, the Civil Disobedience Movement was launched. The Movement started with exhortations favouring abstinence, but picketing of liquor shops and werehouses, social boycott of contractors and consumers were subsequently employed. The then Government felt the regours of this Movement in a loss of net excise revenue in the District to the extent of Rs. 1,15,335, as compared to the previous year.

The next important step in the policy of prohibition was taken in the year 1937, when Congress Party came to power in the State. In the latter half of 1937, Government decided to adopt the policy of total prohibition of liquor including toddy. To implement this policy the Central Provinces and Berar Prohibition Act was passed and brought into force from the 1st April, 1938. In anticipation of the extension of prohibition to Nimar some propaganda against the drink habit was undertaken in the District under the auspices of the local Congress Committee. However, Nimar District had to wait till the cessation of hostilities caused by the Second World War for receiving the boon of prohibition. It was in the month of October, 1946, that prohibition was extended to the District.

With the introduction of prohibition in the District, border arrangements with neighbouring Indian States became necessary. At this time, there were 33 liquor shops of the former Indore and Dhar States within five miles on the border of Nimar District. Therefore, the Provincial Government addressed the Resident for Central India, Indore, to pursuade the Indore and Dhar States to widen the shopless zone from two to five miles from October, 1946, or soon thereafter, A portion of the District also bordered the East Khandesh, now Jalgaon District and under the then existing arrangements a shopless zone of two miles on either side of the border was maintained with a view to preventing smuggling from the area into the "dry" Nimar District. The Provincial Government requested the Government of Bombay to widen the shopless zones from two miles to five miles, and issue coloured liquor to shops in East Khandesh District so that when cases of smuggling are detected it would be possible to trace the sources of supply. The Government of Bombay in ready response agreed to close seven country spirit shops, which fell within five miles from the border of the District, with

effect from April, 1947. A shopless zone was created around the "dry" areas by closing down liquor and toddy shops within 10 miles of the border of such areas. But there was a general complaint from all the Deputy Commissioners of the districts bordering Indian States that the frustrated addicts resorted to liquor shops across the border. The smugglers had adopted diverse routes and it was not always easy to catch them redhanded. The 10 miles shopless zone had not been altogether effective in keeping the drunkards away from the temptation of a drink. The most pressing problem was about the liquor shops in the Indian States bordering the "dry" areas. The Provincial Government again addressed the States concerned through the proper channel, to close all the liquor shops within five miles of the "dry" areas; but they could not see either way to acceding to the request. A proposal to amend the Central Provinces and Berar Prohibition Act, so as to make it penal for a person to be in an intoxicated state, whatever be the source of supply of liquor, was also adumbrated at the close of the year 1946 and has since materialised The two liquor shops located one each at Barwaha and Sanawad of West Nimar District, which fall within five miles of the border of this District have proved a source of constant trouble for the success of prohibition in the District.

In the days of British regime it was often a complaint of the authorities against anti-drink campaigners that "Those who do lip-service to the cause of temperance almost invariably confine themselves to preaching total abstinence from country liquor, but rately address themselves to the more dangerous narcotics, opium, ganja and charas", evils of which attack the richer as well as the poorer classes. Then, after the introduction of policy of prohibition and especially after enforcement of Prohibition Act, the Government had to face the problem of liquor addicts in "dry" areas, resorting to the consumption of intoxicating drugs, opium, etc. The Government addressed themselves to check this mischief in the first instance by introducing prohibition of opium, etc. in "dry" areas with effect from 1st January, 1948. Consumption and sale of *charas* was already prohibited throughout the State from 1st January, 1939. This was later followed by prohibition of sale of certain tinctures and Ayurvedic *suras*. Some idea of the extent of this evil of opium consumption in the District can be had from the data from 1945 to 1961-62 regarding this offence, given in Appendix A.

Opium permit-holders in the District were 10 in 1958-59, 11 in 1959-60 and four each in 1960-61 and 1961-62. From 1962-63 there is only one opium permit-holder

Illicit distillation of liquor is a necessary corollary of introduction of any restriction on the consumption of liquors. Since Prohibition sought the total abolition of the consumption of all liquor, to that extent the problem of illicit distillation became serious. The raw material for the manufacture of country liquor mostly being *mahua* seeds, to check illicit distilation it became incumbent upon Government to control and restrict possession and sale of *mahua*. The Madhya Pradesh Mahua Rules, 1959, were, therefore, made applicable to the

District from 1st July, 1959. The number of licences issued for possession and sale of *mahua* in the District were 221 in the year 1959-60, 157 in 1960-61, 154 in 1961-62 and 117 in 1962-63. Besides these, the Madhya Pradesh Poppy Husk Rules, 1959, were also introduced in the District from 1st July, 1959. Poppy husk includes the lanced, cut, crushed or powedered poppy capsules from which juice is extracted. Under these Rules licences were granted for the sale of poppy husk, and limit on the possession, import or transport of poppy husk by an individual at any time was restricted to 230 grams. The number of offences registered and fine imposed, under both these Rules were.—

Year	Offences Registered		Fines Imposed in Rs.		Acquital		Conviction	
	M. Rules	P.H. Rules	M. Rules	P.H. Rules	M. Rules	P.H. Rules	M. Rules	P.H. Rules
1959-60	37	6	433	167	2	—	37	6
1960-61	14	5	340	70	7	:;	17	4
1961-62	14	—	125	—	—	—	14	—
1962-63	5	—	30	—	—	—	4	—

•:Licences were cancelled

Note.—One year covers the period from 1st October to 30th September.
M=Mahua, P. H.=Poppy husk

Prior to January, 1954 the fee for F.L. XII permit, i e., permit for possession of bottled foreign liquor for private consumption was Rs. 50, which was subsequently raised to Rs. 75. The duty on foreign liquor has also been enhanced. The number of permits issued for F. L XII in 1957 was 22. In the year 1958 and 1959 the number was 28 and 29 in 1960. In 1962 the number was reduced to 26. There is one shop for the sale of bottled foreign liquor at Khandwa. There are five other shops in the District one each at Khandwa, Harsud and Mundi and two at Burhanpur which sell foreign liquor, exclusively for medicinal purposes. These shops draw their supplies of foreign liquor from the only shop at Khandwa.

With the introduction of the Prohibition Act in the year 1938, the Government decided that prevention, detection and prosecution of offences under the Act should be entrusted to the police, being a larger and better equipped department. The excise staff stood by and helped in technical and other matters. Later, instructions were issued to the officers of the Police Department to carry out their duties in regard to prohibition with zeal and thoroughness. Excise staff was also asked to take active part in the detection and prevention of prohibition offences and to prosecute cases themselves. The District Magistrates were also asked to instruct the magistrates subordinate to them to award deterrent and exemplary punishments in prohibition cases. It was realised that the ordinary police staff with its multifarious and important duties was not able to pay undivided attention to the complete eradication of the prohibition crime. Therefore, in the year 1946, a special staff consisting of a Deputy Superintendent of Police, an Inspector, 22 Sub-Inspectors of Police, 45 Head Constables and 154 Constables, was sanctioned for being exclusively employed in prohibition work.

This staff was distributed in eight districts of the Province including Nimar. However, later in the year 1950, this special staff was removed because of financial stringency. Record of the work done by the Police and Excise staff in detection of offences under prohibition can be seen from the Appendix A; while the record of work done by Magistracy in this connection can be appreciated by the number of prosecutions, convictions, imprisonment, fines, etc., as shown in Appendix A.

Efforts at educating public opinion against drinking were also not lacking on the Government as well as public level. Even before prohibition was actually introduced in the District public-spirited people and social organizations were carrying on anti-drink propaganda in the District. After the introduction of prohibition, "Prohibition Day" and "Prohibition Week" began to be celebrated in the District as elsewhere. District and Tahsil Prohibition Committees were also constituted; and from the 15th August, 1953, a full-time Prohibition Propagandist was appointed to look after propaganda work in this connection carried on by official and non-official agencies.

Further on, the Government thought of providing a wholesome drink, as a counter attraction and the Scheme of Neera Vends was implemented in the District in 1952. In the beginning two licenses were granted for the possession and sale of Neera (Sweet toddy) as a beverage. In the years 1953 and 1954. there were three such licences and four in 1955. Centre-wise consumption of this beverage was.—

(In Gallons)

Year	Khandwa	Burhanpur	Harsud	Bir
1952-53	6,000	4,380	—	—
1953-54	10,050	6,750	2,550	—
1954-55	8,700	6,000	3,600	2,400

In the year 1955, these Neera Vends were closed but restarted during 1958-59. Two licences, one for Khandwa and another for Burhanpur, were granted. These licences were continued in 1960-61, 1961-62 and 1962-63. At these centres Neera was sold at the scale-rate of Rs. 1.25 per gallon Quantity of Neera consumed from 1958-59 to 1961-62 was 1,518 bulk gallons.

What it cost the State Exchequer to implement prohibition in the District from the year 1946 might be seen from the figures of Revenue and Expenditure given in Appendix A.

After so much of effort and cost, has the policy of prohibition been a success? The question comes spontaneously as it were, to all thinking minds, not only in the District but all over the Country. Controversies rage and are surging forth between the protagonists and antagonists of Government's prohibition policy. In Nimar District, the enforcement of prohibition Law was made difficult from the beginning because of the existence of "wet" areas around its border. The

official reports depicted improvement in the moral, physical, social and economic well-being of the ex-addicts. Prohibition was reported to have proved especially beneficial to working classes, their women-folk being rendered happy in their home life. Inspite of these official reports, public opinion was sharply divided as to the efficacy of Prohibition Policy. The stage was, therefore, reached when Government appointed a Prohibition Enquiry Committee on the 9th January, 1951 to assess the results of Prohibition Policy. Some of the findings of the Committee were.—

"Prohibition has not led to the elimination of drinking, but may have led to a reduction in the consumption of liquor. It is not possible to assess the quantum of reduction, but the reduction has not been consonant with the time, energy and money spent on it." The Committee opined that "Prohibition has given rise to wide-spread malpractices of illicit distillation, smuggling and consumption of deleterious substances," and further held that, "Prohibition has not led to any betterment of the economic, social and physical condition of the drinking classes, and has not helped to raise the general standard of living of the working classes. It has not affected one way or the other their efficiency and well-being."

ADVANCEMENT OF BACKWARD CLASSES AND TRIBES

Prior to 1950, the classification of Scheduled Castes and Tribes was governed by the Government of India (Scheduled Castes) Order, 1936, and the Thirteenth Schedule to the Government of India (Provincial Legislative Assemblies) Order, 1936. The tribes classified were then termed as "Backward Tribes." According to the Constitution (Scheduled Castes) Order, 1950, 13 different castes were declared as Scheduled Castes in the District.

As regards Scheduled Tribes, 32 different tribes or tribal communities, or parts of, or groups within, tribes or tribal communities have been so far declared as such only in Harsud Tahsil of East Nimar District under the Constitution, (Scheduled Tribes) Order, 1950.

The population of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes in East Nimar District according to Census of 1941, 1951 and 1961 is shown in the Table below.—

Year	Population of East Nimar District	Scheduled Castes		Scheduled Tribes	
		Population	Percentage to District population	Population	Percentage to District population
1941	5,13,276	57,962	11.29	1,12,563	21.93
1951	5,23,496	59,287	11.33	47,252	9.03
1961	6,85.150	61,226	8.94	54,043	7.89

The decline in the population of Scheduled Tribes at the 1951 Census is due to the fact that no localities were specified in the Thirteenth Schedule to the Government of India (Legislative Assemblies) Order, 1936, whereas under the Constitution (Scheduled Tribes) Order, 1950, 32 tribes resident of Harsud Tahsil in the District have only been specified as Scheduled Tribes. In 1961, the concentration of Scheduled Tribes population was only in rural areas, whereas the urban population of Scheduled Castes was 7,093 and rural 54,133. Apart from the Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes, the State Government also prepared a provisional list of 59 Backward Classes in Madhya Pradesh. The Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes residing outside the areas specified in the Constitution (Scheduled Castes) Order, 1950 and the Constitution (Scheduled Tribes) Order, 1950, respectively, shall be deemed to be Backward Classes for purposes of the provisional list.

Educational Advancement

Backward Classes in the past suffered from many disabilities social as well as economic. What little was done in the earlier days for the Backward Classes was in the sphere of education. Discriminatory treatment to the Scheduled Castes students was abolished at least in public schools by suitably amending the Education Manual in the year 1922-23. This might be taken as a step towards the removal of social disability. But in spite of this, because of the general poverty of these classes, it was not possible for them to avail themselves of the educational facilities such as then existed. As such Government initiated certain measures to facilitate education of the Depressed Classes in the same year. Important among these measures were the award of grants-in-aid for hostels specially intended for Depressed Class students: increase in the number and value of scholarships at middle and high school stages; and award of bonuses to headmasters of primary schools on account of the children of the Depressed Classes obtaining primary school certificates, etc. In the year 1906, Khandwa Municipality had started a separate school for boys belonging to the Depressed Classes. In the year 1930, on investigation into the facilities of education for Depressed Classes, the Government found a kindling of interest amongst these classes towards education, and in the year 1930, two primary schools, purely for Depressed Class students were started at Burhanpur. Further on, from the year 1933-34, the students from Depressed Classes were exempted from the payment of any examination fees till 1940. The year 1936-37 saw the opening of some schools by the District Council, East Nimar in the forest areas of the District for tribal students. By this time, the former prejudice against Harijan children was stated to be rapidly disappearing. The policy of the Government, however, continued to be one of encouragement of education amongst Depressed Classes, by offering equal treatment socially to such students in all Government schools and colleges, and financial help by way of special scholarships, free tutions, reservation of seats in Normal Schools, etc. This process was further accelerated on attainment of Independence in 1947, and by embodying in the Constitution of Indian Republic, a directive principle of State policy, regarding promotion with

special care of the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, and in particular of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

The Government of Madhya Pradesh through the Servants of India Society made a survey of the backward areas in the State in the year 1946. A five year plan for the economic and social uplift of people in backward areas was drawn up, and as a result the Backward Areas Welfare Scheme was started in January, 1947. The general pattern of activities in the educational sphere, *viz.*, opening of more schools and hostels, grant of scholarships and stipends, free lodging, clothing, supply of books, etc., was stepped up, and under the Scheme four schools in Harsud Tahsil with a middle school at Khalwa and two in Burhanpur Tahsil were started. These schools were later transferred to respective Janapada Sabhas for management. The Backward Areas Welfare Scheme was afterwards succeeded by Tribal Welfare Scheme. Under the Tribal Welfare Scheme, a general grant of Rs. 300 per year was made to each District Committee of Harijan Sewak Sangh, together with additional grant of Rs. 300 per year for free supply of books and materials to all Harijan students of recognized schools.

Different departments of the State Government were giving stipends and scholarships to the students from the Backward Classes. For example, 318 stipends of the value of Rs. 46,293 were awarded to the students of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes by the District Educational Officer, East Nimar from 1948 49 to 1962-63. The Divisional Superintendent of Education, Narmada Division, awarded 43 scholarships of the value of Rs. 10,320 to the students of Backward Classes including 11 scholarships of the value of Rs. 2, 640 to Scheduled Caste students from 1948-49 to 1958-59. Stipends amounting to Rs. 12,497.80 have been awarded to 53 Scheduled Tribe trainees of Government Buniyadi Prashikshan Vidyalaya, Khandwa from 1957-58 to 1961-62. The Collector, East Nimar District has also awarded 299 Harijan scholarships, 527 Adiwasi scholarships and 473 scholarships to other Backward Class students amounting to Rs. 35,007.31, Rs. 19,110.95 and 22,861.76, respectively from 1957-58 to 1961-62. In addition to this, the District Welfare Officer, East Nimar awarded 78 scholarships of the value of Rs. 13,852.57 to the students of these classes from 1957-58 to 1960-61. As regards post-Matric Scholarships to Scheduled Caste, Scheduled Tribe and Other Backward Class students, the Directorate of Tribal Welfare, Madhya Pradesh, has been placing allotments at the disposal of the Commissioners of Divisions from 1959-60.

Apart from above, a portion of the Scheme in respect of educational advancement was implemented through the Madhya Pradesh Vanvasi Sewa Mandal, on cent per cent grant-in-aid basis in Khandwa and Burhanpur Tahsils from 1st April, 1964. This District was covered under the Hoshangabad Zone of the Mandal with its Zonal Office at Harda. In April 1954, the Mandal established one middle school and a hostel to accommodate 30 students at Punasa and five primary schools at different places in Khandwa Tahsil. In Burhanpur Tahsil the Mandal established one middle school and a hostel to accommodate 30 students at Deo-

talai and five primary schools were started at different places in the Tahsil. In November 1962, there were 50 Scheduled Tribe students and 45 students of other communities in both the middle schools. The number of the Scheduled Tribe students in the hostels was 48. In all the 10 primary schools, the number on roll of Scheduled Tribe students was 303, Harijans 14 and other communities 121. A monthly stipend of Rs. 20 was given to every student in a hostel and instructions in handicrafts including Ambar Charkha and agriculture are also imparted. The tribal students of primary and middle schools get books free and no fee was charged from any student.

In December, 1961 a hostel to accmmodate 18 Scheduled Tribe and two Scheduled Caste students was constructed at a cost of Rs. 24,659 at village Khalwa in Harsud Tahsil. In its construction there has been participation of the people to the extent of Rs 18,000. The hostel was started on 1st July, 1962. For the purchase of equipment an expenditure of Rs. 4,000 was incurred upto the 31st March, 1962. There were 20 Scheduled Tribe (mainly Korkus) students in the hostel.

It was not only the different departments of the State Government but Local bodies like Municipal Committees and Janapada Sabhas were also providing educational and other facilities to the Backward Classes in the District. The Municipal Council, Burhanpur, provided 32 scholarships to the students from Backward Classes in the year 1961-62. The Council also granted Rs. 300 per annum to the District branch of Harijan Sewak Sangh, which was utilized by that Organization for the purchase of books, etc., for the primary school students of the Backward Classes. Janapada Sabha, Burhanpur was also giving scholarships at the rate of Rs. 12 per month per student to 19 Scheduled Tribe students of the middle school. The Janapada Sabha had established about 50 primary schools in the villages where Scheduled Tribe and Scheduled Caste population is concentrated. One middle school building was constructed by the Janapada at Raitalai at the cost of Rs. 9,000. As stated earlier, the four primary schools, one middle school and hostel originally started under the Backward Area Welfare Scheme, in Harsud Tahsil were transferred to the Janapada Sabha Harsud for management on 1st April, 1950. There wree 106 students in these primary schools at this time, 77 students in the middle school and eight students in the hostel. Number of teachers was eight. By 1962, the number of students in primary schools increased to 218, and in the middle school to 178. Students in the hostel numbered 25 and number of teachers increased to 15. A stipend of Rs. 12 per month is given to every student in a hostel. From 1950-51 to 1961-62, Harsud Janapada Sabha had incurred an expenditure of Rs. 1,22,655 on maintenance of these institutions. Janapada Sabha had also given Rs. 1,675 to the local unit of Harijan Sewak Sangh by way of grant-in-aid for educational advancement of Scheduled Castes from 1948-49 to 1958-59 The grant, however, was discontinued since then. The Janapada Sabha, Khandwa was giving an annual grant of Rs. 150 to the Harijan Sewak Sangh, Khandwa, towards the educational advancement of the Scheduled Castes.

In the year 1963, an office of the District Organiser of Tribal Welfare was opened at Khandwa. All the tribal welfare activities including education are now being carried on by the District Organizer. Award of scholarships and grant of stipends, management of all schools in the tribal areas including those, which were formerly managed by the Education Department and the Vanvasi Sewa Mandal, are being looked after by the District Organiser under the guidence of the Collector of the District. The hostels run by the Janapada Sabha, Burhanpur, and Vanvasi Seva Mandal are also being managed by the District Organiser. All other departments participating in these activities have ceased to function in this sphere.

According to the Census of 1961 out of the total Scheduled Caste population of 61,226 persons in the District, 6,407 persons are literate, while the number of literate persons in the District is only 1,627 among the total District Scheduled Tribe population of 54,043 persons.

Economic Advancement

One of the measures taken for the economic betterment of the Scheduled Castes and Tribes was the extension of the provisions of the Central Provinces Land Alienation Act., 1916, to certain aboriginal tracts in the District. This step was taken in the year 1938-39 by the Revenue Department and was a step to prevent alienation of land by the tribals like Korkus, Gonds, Rajgonds, Pardhan, etc., in the District without the permission of Deputy Commissioner. This was a very salutary step to prevent exploitation of the simple aboriginals by the money lender, who made them part with their lands in payment of their debts.

With a view further to assisting the tribal people in carrying on agricultural operations, subsidy for soil conservation amounting to Rs. 3,200 was distributed amongst 11 agriculturists of Scheduled Tribes, eight from Burhanpur and three from Harsud tahsils, respectively. Seven other agriculturists belonging to Scheduled Tribes in Harsud Tahsil were also the recipients of further amount of Rs. 3,500 as an agricultural subsidy. For storing of grain a *Grain Gola* was constructed at Langoti in Harsud Tahsil for tribal agriculturists in the year 1962 at a cost of Rs. 700.

In the sphere of economic betterment of these castes and tribes the co-operative activities are also playing a major role. As early as in the year 1941, there were 36 co-operative societies in the District with all aboriginal membership of 419. The sweepers of Khandwa organized for themselves the Mehtar Co-operative Society, Khandwa, in the year 1943 Another co-operative society of the sweepers at Khandwa was registered in the year 1949.

The Chamars or Mochis at Khandwa also formed a society of their own, namely, Charmakar Co-operative Society, Khandwa, in the year 1955 with a membership of 72. This Society received Rs. 25,000 towards its working capital and Rs. 1,250 towards share capital from the State Government in the year 1956-57. In 1961-62, the same Society also received a subsidy of Rs. 900 from the

Government. Similar society came into existence at Burhanpur in the year 1959. This was registered as Burhanpur Charmakar Co-operative Society. Government assistance was given to this Society also in the form of loan and working capital amounting to Rs. 1,400 and Rs. 5,000, respectively, the former in 1959-60 and latter in 1960-61. Besides these, five other co-operative societies of Charmakars came to be organized at different places like Mohana, Akiya, Sayadpur, Mundi and Chikali in the District from 1960 to 1962. Societies at Mohana and Akiya received financial assistance from Government by way of share capital, loan, etc. The Department of Industries of the Madhya Pradesh Government is assisting six out of these seven Charmakar Societies in the District to the tune of Rs. 42, 350. This, therefore, is a step towards the development of leather industry in the District for the economic betterment of those engaged in it.

Government also started a Tanning Centre at Shahpur in the District in the year 1960-61 for training workers in tanning methods. This Centre had trained 20 workers in two batches of 10 each. As a follow-up programme, six of these trained workers were given grants-in-aid of Rs. 125 each towards subsidizing the cost of improved tools and equipment, thus enabling them to establish in the industry. Leather Goods Training Centre was started at Ahmadpur in the District, which trained 18 persons in two years 1958-59 and 1959-60. This Centre had, however, to be closed subsequently for want of trainees. The tools and equipment of this closed Centre were shifted in the year 1960-61 at village Mohana, under Punasa Development Block, where Leather Goods Training Centre was again started. This Centre trained 11 trainees. The trainees at this Centre get Rs. 15 per month during training period.

Under the State Aid to Industries Act and Rules the Department of Industries has disbursed an amount of Rs. 1,24,175 as loans, from the year 1954-55 to 1962-63, to Chamars, Mochis and Bamboo workers in the District.

Madhya Pradesh Village Industries Board, also sanctions grants for repairing and construction of pits at the rate of Rs. 200 per pit.

Construction of roads and houses in tribal areas is also undertaken. In Harsud Tahsil, for example, 1½ miles of road was constructed at a cost of Rs. 600 linking Sirpur to Baudaria. Under the Backward Area Welfare Scheme, 7 miles of road was also constructed from Khalwa to Kala Am Khurd. Construction of houses for Scheduled Caste people is also receiving attention. From 1957-58 to 1960-61, 32 houses at a total cost of Rs. 24,000 were constructed at different places in Khandwa, Burhanpur and Harsud tahsils of the District. Towards the cost of construction of a house Government grants Rs. 750 and a sum of Rs. 250 is a contribution of the member from the Scheduled Caste, constructing a house.

The Municipal Councils at Khandwa and Burhanpur have their housing schemes for their Harijan employees. Before 1948-49, the Khandwa Municipal Council was providing residential accommodation to 30 Harijan families only,

but afterwards the Council extended this facility to all of their Harijan employees. In case of the non-availability of residential accommodation, the Council pay Rs. 1.50 per month towards house-rent. From 1949-50 to 1959-60 the Council have spent Rs. 1,63,096 towards the construction of 40 tenements and eight blocks. Harijan residents of Gandhi Nagar Colony are not charged any taxes. The Municipal Council, Khandwa, have also undertaken a scheme for clearance of slum colonies at the cost of Rs. 21,01,000. Under this Scheme construction work on 18 tenements had been started at Gandhi Nagar.

Municipal Council, Burhanpur provide rent-free quarters to their Harijan employees. In lieu of residential accommodation Rs. 3 per month are paid to the Harijan employee. From 1956-57 to 1959-60, 51 tenements were constructed by the Council and work on 16 more quarters was in progress during 1962-63.

The Gram Panchayat, Harsud, have also constructed 16 rooms for the sweepers under Gram Panchayat in the year 1956.

Social Advancement

In the removal of social disabilities of the Backward Classes, the organizations like, All India Harijan Sewak Sangh, a branch of which was established at Khandwa, as early as in the year 1932, are taking active part. This branch of the Sangh was registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860, on 6th August, 1934. The programme of this organization consists of propagating amongst the caste-Hindus the ideas of equality of status for Harijans in the society as a whole. It also impresses upon the Scheduled Caste people to prepare themselves for attainment of this status by all peaceful means. The Sangh has also helped the sweeper employees of the Khandwa Municipal Council in getting wheel-barrows for carrying night-soil which they had been carrying as a head-load for ages. The Sangh has also established a *Balwadi* at Padwa Mohalla, Khandwa, for Harijan children. Powder-milk is distributed at *Balwadi* to the children. Other organizations working in the same field in the District are Harijan Sangh, Burhanpur, which was established in 1934 soon after Gandhi's visit to Khandwa and Burhanpur in December, 1933. Nimar Harijan Sewa Samiti was established at Khandwa in 1950. Harijan Sewa Samaj, Khandwa, a body registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860 was established on 10th September, 1956. This Samaj organizes classes in social education in the Harijan colonies. Financial assistance to Harijan students by way of scholarships is also given by the Sangh. At Khandwa, there is one Mehtar Kamgar Sangh, which was registered in the year 1957, under the Societies Registration Act, 1860. There are Mehtar Samaj Municipal Kamgar Sangh, and Harijan Sewak Sangh at Burhanpur. At Harsud also there is Harijan Sewak Sangh.

Besides these efforts of the voluntary organizations in the removal of social disabilities of the Backward Classes, the Governments, at the Centre as well as at the State levels, have introduced legislation for the removal of the social disabilities of these classes in accordance with the spirit of the republican constitu-

tion of free India, guaranteeing equality of status, opportunities, etc, to all the citizens of the Country. At the State level, the Government enacted and brought into force the Central Provinces and Berar Scheduled Castes (Removal of Civil Disabilities) Act, 1947. According to this Act, discrimination against members of the Scheduled Castes in public places, in the use of public services, etc., was prohitibed. Another enactment was the Central Provinces and Berar Temple Entry Authorisation Act, 1947, which guaranteed the right of worship to the members of the Scheduled Castes along with those of caste-Hindus, in the same places of worship. These enactments have a salutary effect in advancing the social status of the Scheduled Castes.

Dedicated to the uplift of Scheduled Tribes, there was only one organization, *viz.*, Madhya Pradesh Vanvasi Sewa Mandal, working in Burhanpur and Khandwa tahsils of the District from the year 1954.

Other Welfare Activities

Health and Sanitation also forms part of the general uplift programme for the Backward Classes. In Khalwa Tribal Development Block there is one Primary Health Centre, functioning from the year 1960-61. Khalwa Community Development Block was converted to Tribal Block from 1st October, 1962. Activities relating to health and sanitation in the Block area consist of construction of rural latrines, '*pucka*' drains, soakage-pits, improved urinals, vaccination of school-going children, disinfection of drinking water wells, construction and renovation of drinking water wells, etc. In this connection it is worth noting that during the year ending 31st March, 1963, about 30 rural latrines, 790, soakage-pits, five drinking water wells and eight improved type of urinals were constructed in this Tribal Block area. For the same period, number of school-going children vaccinated was 4,600; about 220 drinking water wells were disinfected and four wells were renovated. The Madhya Pradesh Vanvasi Sewa Mandal, an organization devoted to the uplift of Tribals had been distributing medicines free of charge to the tribal students in the schools, which were under its management in the District from the year 1954 to 1963. In the rural areas, generally, drinking water supply facilities are scarce. Females from the rural families fetching water in pails over their heads and waists from rivulets or dilapidated wells, miles away from the village. is a common sight from a rural life. Problem of pure drinking water supply has been further made serious for the Scheduled Caste people in the rural areas, because of the ideas of untouchability amongst certain sections. To remedy this situation, not only different Government agencies but Janapada, Gram Panchayats and voluntary social organizations in the District have undertaken the construction and renovation of drinking water wells. In all the Community Development Blocks, this work is undertaken by the Block authorities for their respective Block areas. Janapada Sabha, Khandwa, constructed 26 new drinking water wells from 1955-56 to 1960-61 at a total cost of Rs. 60,250. Janapada Sabha, Burhanpur, have constructed 14 new drinking water wells in same number of tribal villages. The Madhya Pradesh Vanvasi Sewa

Mandal have constructed, one well each in the tribal schools. The Mandal had also constructed a well in the village Barkheda in Harsud Tahsil. A total of 11 drinking water wells were constructed especially for Scheduled Caste people in the District from 1957-58 to 1960-61 at a cost of Rs. 21,251. Of these 11 wells, four each are in Khandwa and Burhanpur tahsils and three in Harsud Tahsil, in different villages.

PUBLIC TRUSTS AND CHARITABLE ENDOWMENTS

Public Trusts

In keeping with the philanthropic traditions of the Country, this District has also a number of Trusts and Charitable Endowments mostly religious and educational. Prior to 1951, some of the endowments in the District were mismanaged and uncared for; but with the passing of the Madhya Pradesh Public Trusts Act, 1951, managements of all the Trusts were systematized. Under this Act, all endowments are registered with the Registrar of Public Trusts, East Nimar, i.e., the Collector of the District. On 31st October, 1962, there were 326 Public Trusts registered under the Madhya Pradesh Public Trusts Act. Of these 158 Trusts were in Burhanpur Tahsil, 150 in Khandwa and 18 in Harsud. The number of Trusts, purely religious in their objective, was 269. There were 74 Trusts having an annual income of more than Rs. 1,000, of which 53 were religious and 21 with social objectives. Brief account of some of the important Trusts is given below.—

Manikya Memorial Library, Khandwa

On 29th December, 1954, this Trust was registered under the Public Trusts Act with its immovable property worth Rs 80,000 and movable Rs. 13,737. It receives grants-in-aid from the Municipal Council, Janapada Sabha and Madhya Pradesh Government. Its annual income is about Rs. 8,000, which is mainly utilised for the purchase of Hindi, English, Bengali, Marathi, Urdu, Sindhi, Punjabi and Sanskrit books for the Library. In 1959-60, the Ministry of Cultural and Scientific Research, Government of India, granted Rs. 8,000 towards its building fund and Rs. 3,000 for purchase of books, and Madhya Pradesh Government granted Rs. 10,000 in 1962. The value of its building is worth Rs. 2,00,000, approximately and there are 8,000 books in eight languages. The Trust also organises cultural programmes.

Hakimia Society Religious and Public Trust, Burhanpur

This religious and public Trust was registered in March, 1956, under the Public Trusts Act, with its immovable property of the value of Rs. 3,26,500 and movable Rs. 28,900. This Trust of Daudi Bohra community runs educational institutions at Burhanpur.

Quaderia High School Society, Burhanpur

With an immovable property of the value of Rs. 4,76,658 and movable Rs. 23,000 this Trust was registered at Burhanpur for conducting educational institutions such as Bal Mandir, Vijnan Mahavidyalaya, Grih Vijhan Mahavidya-

laya, Girls' Higher Secondary School, Urdu Boys' and Girls' Primary Schools, etc., and a hostel, at Burhanpur.

Shri Ganesh Gaushala, Khandwa

There are two Public Trusts one at Khandwa, namely Shri Ganesh Goushala and another Shri Gorakshan Sanstha at Burhanpur. The first of these two Trusts at Khandwa was established in the year 1919 and the other at Burhanpur in the 1920. Both the Trusts were registered under the Public Trusts Act in the year 1955. At the time of registeration, the Trust at Khandwa had an immovable property worth Rs. 11,000 and movable assets of Rs. 3,600. Gorakshan Sanstha at Burhanpur had an immovable property of the value of Rs. 13,400 and movable property of the value of Rs. 13,358. As their names indicate both the Trusts are working for the protection of cows, and improvement of their breed.

Hindu Bal Sewa Sadan, Khandwa

In the year 1918, this District was severaly affected by influenza epidemic and quite a number of children were orphaned. Sahajanand, an Arya Samajist, took care of these orphans and with the efforts of Babu Ramlal an orphanage was established at Khandwa on 14th December, 1920. At its establishment there were only three orphans. Originally, the institution was called *Anathalaya* but later its name was changed to Hindu Anathalaya and finally in 1949, to Hindu Bal Sewa Sadan. It was registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860 on the 20th May, 1930, and later on 7th Februaary, 1955, under the Public Trusts Act. The number of orphans benefited by the Sadan during the first 39 years of its life was 1,239. From 1st April, 1955 to 31st March, 1962, the number of orphans admitted in the Sadan was 287 and the marriages of 24 girls and a *sadhawa* (married woman) were performed. On the 31st March, 1962, the number of orphans in the Sadan was 86, which included 61 boys, 23 girls, one widow and one *sadhawa*. In 1959, a primary school was opened by the Sadan mainly for its inmates and the number on roll was 68 in 1962. It has a library and a reading room. On 31st March, 1962, the immovable property of the Sadan was of the value of Rs. 1,15,813 and movable Rs. 30,086. The Sadan is popular not only in this State but even outside.

Shri Digambar Jain Pathashala, Khandwa

On 17th January, 1921, Shri Digambar Jain Pathashala was established at Khandwa for the education of the boys of Jain community. For the maintenance of school, late Gulabsaji Kachroosaji donated a landed property of the value of Rs 8,005 and soon after this a managing committee was constituted. In 1926, the Government recognised this institution. Since then it is functioning properly with the income from Trust property, monthly subscriptions and grants-in aid from the Government. It was registered under the Public Trusts Act on the 14th March, 1955. Its movable property is valued at Rs. 700 and immovable at Rs 21,457. From 1959-60 to 1961-62, the number of students admitted in the School was 624.

Shrimati Saubhagyavati Sethani Parvati Bai Dharmashala Trust, Khandwa

In order to perpetuate the memory of his wife, Jiwandas son of Gokuldas of Jabalpur built a *dharmashala* in her name at Khandwa, the place of her birth, with a cost of about Rs. 2,00,000. In addition to this, the author of the Trust donated an endowment of Rs. 10,000 to the *dharmashala* fund in 1923. The *dharmashala* which is located quite close to Khandwa railway station was inaugurated on 25th March, 1924. Later, attached to the *dharmashala* a temple of Laxminarayan was constructed and inaugurated on 7th May, 1947 for public worship. It has a library containing books on all religions. The *dharmashala* provides 24 hours' free service and about 1,00,000 passengers of all castes and creeds are benefited annually. On 29th December, 1954, Shrimati Saubhagyavati Sethani Parvati Bai Dharmashala with temple of Laxminarayan, Khandwa, was registered under the Public Trusts Act. The Trust has immovable property approximately of the value of Rs. 10,00,000 and permanent deposit of Rs. 60,000. The monthly income accruing from the Trust property is of the order of Rs. 1,000.

Dansheela Chandravati Bai Digambar Jain Kanyashala Trust, Khandwa

With a view to educating the girls of Jain community upto primary standard and to impart them moral and religious education, Dansheela Chandravati Bai Jain donated about Rs. 18,000 and founded Dansheela Chandravati Bai Digambar Jain Kanyashala, Khandwa, on 23rd October, 1927. Later, Sukmabai donated Rs. 10,000 towards this Kanyashala and in addition to handicrafts training, sewing classes were also started in the Kanyashala. It is recognised by the Government and is open to all castes and creeds. On 8th January, 1955, it was registered under the Public Trusts Act and its annual income from immovable property was Rs. 3,229.

Shri Digambar Jain Aushadhalaya, Khandwa

In the memory of his wife, Chunnilalsa created a Trust of about Rs. 36,000 for public service by Ayurvedic treatment, and Shri Digambar Jain Paramarthik Aushadhalaya came into existence at Khandwa in 1928. Free medical treatment is provided to about 2,500 patients annually and most of the medicines are prepared in the Aushadhalaya. On 17th June, 1955 Shri Digambar Jain Aushdhalaya has been registered under the Public Trusts Act. The Trust has immovable property worth Rs. 48,000, approximately and other assets in the form of secured and unsecured loans given to the extent of Rs. 30,000.

Seth Roopchandra Asahaya Sahayak Trust Fund, Khandwa

On 18th June 1943, Roopchandra Asahaya Sahayak Trust Fund, Khandwa, was created primarly for helping the poor widows and men. The founder, late Roopchandra, donated Rs. 10,000 towards this fund. Earlier, his elder brother late Ramasa had also founded Shri Ramasa Digambar Jain Vidyarthi Sahayak Fund by donating Rs 10,000 for helping the poor students of Digambar Jain community. It has been registered under the Public Trusts Act, on 29th December, 1954. The Roopchandra Trust Fund made steady progress and on 13th August,

1962, there were Rs. 40,000 in its permanent fund. From the date of its establishment upto 1961-62, this Trust has given financial help amounting to Rs. 21,802.78 to 421 persons. Besides helping the poor and helpless widows, meritorious students for higher studies and poor for treatment, this Trust has founded certain prizes for the students of Khandwa town and Tahsil.

The Nimar Education Society, Khandwa

The Nimar Education Society, Khandwa, was formed in the year 1946 and registered under the Societies Registration Act on 13th February, 1946. It started the Subhash High School in July, 1947 and Shree Nilakantheshwar College in July, 1948 at Khandwa. The former institution is now known as Ballabhdas Ishwardas Subhash Higher Secondary School. The College, which had started functioning with 56 students only, became a full-fledged Degree College in Arts faculty in 1949. The faculty of Commerce was introduced in 1952-53 and the Science faculty in 1958-59. From July, 1962, post-Graduate courses in Economics, Political Science and Commerce have been started. At the time of its registration under the Public Trust Act on the 7th February, 1955, it had an immovable property worth Rs. 3,10,000 and movable Rs. 40,242. In the year 1963, the Nilkantheshwar College was transferred to the State Government.

The Lok Shikshan Samiti, Khandwa

In the year 1951, the Lok Shikshan Samiti was established at Khandwa and during the same year it founded a full-fledged High School for teaching Arts subjects, called the Janata Vidyalaya with 234 students in 5th to 11th classes. On the 21st January of the following year it was registered. Later, science and commerce subjects were also introduced and the Vidyalaya was converted into Higher Secondary School. On 5th August, 1961, the number of students on roll was 620. The other two schools founded by the Society are the Nootan Higher Secondary School Bir with Arts, Commerce and Science subjects and the Durga Vidyalaya, Bhamgarh. The former institution was started in 1952, while the latter in 1956. Being located in villages, both the schools cater to the needs of rural areas. On 7th January, 1955, when the Society was registered under the Public Trusts Act, it had immovable property of the value of Rs. 2,00,000 approximately and, movable property of the value of Rs. 4,963.

Shrimati Chandra Bai Roopchandra Bal Niketan, Khandwa

Shrimati Chandra Bai Roopchandra Bal Niketan was established on 9th July, 1952 in order to impart pre-primary education to children on Montessori system. Its initial investment was of the value of Rs. 2,000 Later, Somachand Jain of Khandwa donated Rs. 7,500 for the construction of its building. Bal Niketan, Khandwa, was registered under the Societies Registration Act and later under Public Trusts Act, 1951. The Niketan has its own building and the Trust has immovable property of the value of Rs. 15,000 and movable Rs. 2,000. It is a recognised institution and is in receipt of grant-in-aid from the Government.

Shri Mansinghka Charitable Trust, Khandwa

On 28th June, 1957, Shri Mansinghka Charitable Trust, Khandwa, was founded by Murlidhar Mansinghka for charitable purposes. It was registered under the Public Trusts Act, on 3rd October, 1959. At that time, it had immovable property worth Rs. 10,000 and movable Rs. 1,000. It is a self-supporting Trust with an annual income of more than Rs. 2,000. On 30th June, 1961, it had an immovable property worth Rs. 14,000 and movable Rs. 4,284.24. Throughout the year, it runs a *pyaoo* for thirsty persons in Ganj Bazar, Khandwa. With an expenditure of about Rs. 20,000 it has established a godown for firewood and constructed a platform for burning dead bodies during rains on cremation grounds, Khandwa.

Charitable Endowments

The Charitable Endowments Act of 1890 is applicable to the Trusts of this District and all funds are vested with the State Treasurer of Charitable Endowments. There are eight charitable endowments in the District. In 1903, Babu Haridas Chatterjee of Khandwa founded the Taraknath Chatterjee Silver Medal and Haridassi Silver Medal Fund by donating towards each Rs. 500, which formed the Trust property. From the net income accruing out of the fund, the first medal is awarded to the student, who secures highest marks amongst the Khandwa High School candidates appearing at the Matriculation Examination, whereas the other medal to a girl student of the Khandwa Girls' School, securing highest marks in the primary examination. The fund property is of the value of Rs. 1,500.48.

In 1910, one Ghisia Rao Gujar of *mauza* Siloda of Khandwa Tahsil deposited Rs. 500 and founded a fund for a prize, called the Left-Wich prize, in the form of books. The net income accruing from the property of the prize fund is expended for the purchase of books, which are annually awarded as Left-Wich Prize to a student of Khandwa High School, who stands second at the Matriculation Examination. In 1960, the fund property was of the value of Rs. 626.41. To commemorate the name of late Left-Wich, Deputy Commissioner of East Nimar, people collected Rs. 3,500 and founded another fund called the Left-Wich Scholarship Fund, Khandwa, in 1912. The scholarship, awarded every alternate year, is tenable for two years to a student, who stands first at the Matriculation Examination from Khandwa and Burhanpur High Schools and is studying in any college of Arts or Science. The fund property was of the value of Rs. 4,732.38 in 1960.

The Dank Prize Fund, Khandwa, was founded in 1913 by some leading residents of Burhanpur, who subscribed Rs. 400 for it. The prize is awarded in the shape of books to a student of the Burhanpur Municipal High School or Hakimia Coronation High School, standing first at the Matriculation Examination amongst the examinees of those schools. In 1960, the fund property was of the value of Rs. 625.03.

In 1915, the Executors of the will of late G. Dongre, deposited Rs. 600 and founded Gopal Rao Dongre Prize Fund, Khardwa. The prize is awarded in the shape of books to an industrious and intelligent student of High School, Khandwa. The fund property is of the value of Rs. 705.16.

Another fund called the D. B. Sohoni Prize fund, Khandwa, was founded with Rs. 700. Out of the net income of this fund, prizes in the shape of books are awarded to such students of the Motilal Nehru High School, Khandwa, who secure the highest marks in the annual promotion examination of VIII, IX and X classes. The fund property was of the value of Rs. 1,029.54 in 1960. The Collector, East Nimar District, is the administrator of all the six funds, referred to above.

The Divisional Forest Officer, East Nimar Forest Division, is the administrator of the Dunbar Brander Trust Fund, Khandwa, which was founded with Rs. 749-1-4 in 1922 by friends of A. A. Dunbar Brander of Indian Forest Services in order to relieve the distress of Forest Guards, their wives, children and dependents. Since the formation of the fund, no amount has been given to any one. The fund property was of the value of Rs. 1,556.01 in 1960.

In 1925, H. Mitra Gold Medal Fund, Khandwa was founded with Rs. 1,000. Every year, the District Education Officer, Khandwa, awards a gold medal to a student of the Government High School, Khandwa, who secures the highest marks in English at the High School Certificate Examination. The fund property is of the value of Rs. 1,200 in 1960.

Government's Grant to religious institutions

Under the Central Provinces and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemption Act, 1948, 31 annual money-grants of the value of Rs. 5,937 have been sanctioned in the District for the maintenance, upkeep, etc., of 26 temples, two tombs, a mosque, a *dargah* and two shrines.

CHAPTER XVIII

PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

Representation in Union Legislature

It was only after the delimitation of the constituencies after 1950 that East Nimar District formed a substantial part of a parliamentary constituency. Before that, from 1909 to 1913, the entire Central Provinces had only two members to represent it in the Imperial Council, and of these one was elected by the District Councils and the Municipalities of the Province, and the other by the Landholders. East Nimar District sent 3 representatives—one from the District Council and two from the Municipal Committees of Khandwa and Burhanpur to the electoral college, to elect the former, and two representatives to the Landholders' electorate to elect the latter. On the establishment of a Legislative Council for the Province in 1914, the seat assigned to the District Council and Municipalities was replaced by a seat to be filled by election by the non-official members of the Legislative Council. This arrangement continued till 1920, when the Province returned one member to the Council of State and five members to the Indian Legislative Assembly. East Nimar District did not form an independent constituency for electing a representaive, but formed a part of the wider constituencies to elect representatives to the Council of State and Indian Legislative Assembly. The District was represented by the following three wider constituencies in the Assembly; (1) Double-Member Central Provinces, Hindi-Division (non-Muhammadan), (2) Central Provinces, (Muhammadan) and (3) Central Provinces (Landholders). When the Government of India Act, 1935 came into force, this position remained much the same. In 1946, soon after the election of a new Indian Legislative Assembly, elections to the Constituent Assembly were held in which out of 17 members elected from this Province one happened to belong to East Nimar District. Subsequently, when the Madhya Pradesh Legislative Assembly elected 17 members to the Provisional Parliament one member came from this District

This position continued until the general elections of 1951-52, when East Nimar District was covered under the single-member Nimar constituency for the Lok Sabha, comprising whole of East Nimar District and Harda and Seoni-Malwa Tahsils of Hoshangabad District. In 1957, however, a slight change was effected in the extent of the constituency and in that instead of whole of Seoni-Malwa Tahsil, it included only Pagdhal Revenue Inspector's circle of that Tahsil.

In the elections of 1962, representation of the District remained the same in Lok Sabha.

Representation in The State Legislature

It was only in November, 1913, that the territories administered by the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces were by Proclamation delcared to be a Province to which the provisions of the Indian Councils Act were made applicable. Regulations for the nomination and election of members were issued by the Governor-General-in-Council on the 15th November, 1913 and the Central Provinces Legislative Council was established in 1914, the first meeting of which was held on the 17th August, 1914. Seven members of this Council were elected by the Municipal Committees, District Councils and Landholders in the Province, while 17 members were nominated by the Chief Commissioner.

Thus East Nimar District as a unit did not find representation in this Council. The position, however, changed, when the Government of India Act, 1919 and the new constitution under it was inaugurated in the Province on 17th December, 1920. The strength of the reformed Legislative Council, which came into existence in January, 1921 was 70, of which among others, 36 were elected members, 17 were persons nominated as the result of elections held in Berar, 6 were nominated to represent various interests. Total strength of the members of the Council and those of elected category increased in subsequent years, when the University at Nagpur was formed and Mandla District formed a separate constituency. In 1927 women were enfranchised.

As far as East Nimar District was concerned the representation of the District in the Legislative Council from January, 1921 to March, 1937 was.—

Serial Number and Name of Constituency	Class of Constituency	Extent of Constituency	Number of Members
1. Nerbudda Division (Urban)	Non-Muhammadan	The Municipalities of Hoshangabad, Harda, Khandwa, Burhanpur, Narsinghpur and Chhindwara and the Railway Settlements of Harda and Chhindwara.	1
2. Nimar District	Non-Muhammadan (Rural)	The District of Nimar	1
3. Nerbudda Division (Rural)	Muhammadan (Rural)	The Division of Nerbudda	1
4. Jubbulpur and Nerbudda Landholders.	Landholders	Jubbulpur and Nerbudda* Divisions excluding the Mandla District (except the Mandla Municipality).	1

* With the creation of a constituency for Mandla District in 1926, change occured in the extent of the constituency.

Besides, the District was represented by a few other non-territorial constituencies like University, Industries, Commerce, etc. When the Government of India Act, 1935, came into force and the elections were held in 1937, the number of seats in the Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Assembly was 112. Out of these, 84 were general seats, including 20 reserved for the Scheduled Castes, one seat for representative of backward areas and tribes; 14 for Muhammadans; 1 for Anglo-Indians; 1 for Europeans, 2 for representatives of Commerce, Industry, Mining and Planting; 3 for Landholders; 1 for University; 2 for representatives of Labour and 3 for women. In so far as East Nimar District was concerned, it was represented in the Legislative Assembly of the Central Provinces and Berar by the following constituencies, in addition to non-territorial constituencies like those of University, Landholders, Europeans, etc.—

S. No. and Name of Constituency	Class of Constituency	Extent of Constituency	Number of seats
1. Hoshangabad-Nimar-Chhindwara	General (Urban)	Hoshangabad, Itarsi, Harda, Narsinghpur, Khandwa, Burhanpur and Chhindwara Municipalities and the Railway Settlements at Harda and Chhindwara	1
2. Khandwa	General (Rural)	Khandwa tahsil, excluding the area included in urban constituency	1
3. Burhanpur-Harsud	,,	Burhanpur and Harsud tahsils, excluding the area included in urban constituency	1
4. Nimar	Muhammadan (Rural)	The whole of Nimar District	1

The legislature elected in 1937 remained dormant after the resignation of the Ministry in 1939 and was finally dissolved on the 3rd September, 1945, and fresh general elections were ordered in that year and completed in April, 1946.

This position continued until the General Elections of 1951-52, when the District was covered by five constituencies including one double member constituency. Burhanpur, Shahpur, Mundi and Harsud were single member constituencies while that of Khandwa was a double member constituency having one seat reserved for Scheduled Castes. Hence during the first General Elections, East Nimar returned six members in all to the Legislative Assembly. In the General Elections of 1957, although some changes were made which affected the number and extent of constituencies, the number of members elected from them remained the same. This time the District was devided into four constituencies, *viz.*, Burhanpur, Shahpur, Khandwa and Harsud, of which the latter two were double member constituencies. One seat in each of them was reserved for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, respectively.

All the double member constituencies were abolished before the General Elections of 1961, in persuance of the Two Member Constituencies (Abolition) Act, 1961. Consequently, apart from the aforesaid four constituencies, two new constituencies, *viz.*, Khalwa and Pandhana were created for the Third General Elections. The former was reserved for Scheduled Tribes while the latter was reserved for Scheduled Castes. Thus, in the Elections of 1961, the number of constituencies was six in the District.

POLITICAL PARTIES AND ORGANISATIONS

Indian National Congress

Although a few public spirited persons of Khandwa began associating with the activities of the Indian National Congress about the year 1907, it was only in the year 1918, that the district branch of the Party was formally established at Khandwa. The comparative strength of the Congress in the District was reflected in the Elections, held in 1937 and 1946. The candidates belonging to the Congress Party were elected to the Provincial Legislature from all the three general constituencies that covered the District.

In the 1951-52, General Elections, the Congress Party set up a candidate for Lok Sabha and won the only seat of the District. For the State Legislature, it contested all the six seats and captured five seats. The sixth seat of Harsud constituency went to an independent candidate. In the General Elections of 1957, Congress Party set up a candidate for the Lok Sabha and again won the seat. For the State Legislative Assembly it contested all the six seats and succeeded in winning five seats except Shahpur constituency seat, which was captured by Praja Socialist Party. Out of the five elected Congress candidates, one Scheduled Tribe candidate was elected uncontested from the double-member Harsud constituency. In the General Elections of 1962, the Party set up a candidate for Lok Sabha and won Khandwa constituency seat. For the Vidhan Sabha, it contested all the six seats but succeeded in winning only three seats from Burhanpur, Khandwa and Pandhana constituencies. It polled 82,881 (44.56 per cent) valid votes cast in all the six constituencies. The District office of the Party is at Khandwa and subordinate to it are 35 Mandal Offices in the District.

Hindu Maha Sabha

Of the other political parties the first to open its branch in the District, in 1927, was the Hindu Mahasabha, with a membership of 15. It, however, did not make much headway.

Muslim League

Muslim League was the only other major political party in the District before 1947. Soon after the formation of the Central Provinces and Berar. Muslim League was organised in the Province. In October, 1936, two branches of the Muslim

League were established, one at Khandwa with about 200 members, and other at Burhanpur with about 1,000 members. Later, another branch was opened at Harsud with about 14 members. For the Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Assembly, a candidate of the Muslim League (Shareef Party) was elected from Nimar Muhammadan (Rural) constituency in the elections of 1937. The next elections to the Assembly were completed in April, 1946, and a candidate of Muslim League (Shareef Party) was again elected from the Nimar Muhammadan (Rural) constituency. The branches of the Muslim League ceased to exist, for all practical purposes, in the District, shortly after Independence.

Socialist Party

A Socialist group was formed in the District, within the Congress fold, in the year 1934. It was a sequel to the conference of the All India Congress Socialist Party convened that year at Bombay. The group organised the local workers into a Socialist Labour Union which supported Tapti Mills workers' strike in 1935. This took a very prominent part in the August Movement of 1942. After the attainment of Independence, the Party dropped the prefix 'Congress' from its name and completely broke away from the Congress in 1948. A branch of the Socialist Party was opened at Khandwa in the same year. In the General Elections of 1951-52, the Socialist Party set up three candidates from Shahpur, double-member Khandwa and Mundi constituency seats to the State Legislature, but lost all of them. After elections, the Socialist Party merged with the Kisan Mazdoor Praja Party and the party arising out of the merger came to be known as the Praja Socialist Party.

Kisan Mazdoor Praja Party

On the eve of first General Elections, a unit of Kisan Mazdoor Praja Party was established at Khandwa. In the 1951-52 elections, it contested the Lok Sabha seat in Nimar constituency and having polled 34,624 (19.7 per cent) valid votes lost the seat. Thereafter, it merged with the Socialist Party.

Praja Socialist Party

After the first General Elections in 1951-52, a unit of Praja Socialist Party came into being in the District. As stated earlier, it was formed by the fusion of the Socialist Party and Kisan Mazdoor Praja Party. In the General Elections of 1957, the Praja Socialist Party contested Nimar constituency seat to Lok Sabha but lost it. For the State Legislative Assembly it set up candidates only for four seats out of six in the District and succeeded in winning only Shahpur constituency seat. Consequent upon the death of a Praja Socialist Party candidate, a vacancy was caused which after bye-election again went to a candidate of this Party. In the General Elections of 1962, it contested Khandwa constituency seat to the Lok Sabha and lost it. For the Vidhan Sabha, out of six seats in the District, it contested three seats and succeeded in winning Shahpur constituency seat while it lost Burhanpur and Khandwa constituency seats.

Scheduled Castes Federation

The district branch of the Scheduled Castes Federation was opened at Burhanpur city in 1936. Other branches were opened at Khandwa and Shahpur in 1947. In 1951-52 the Federation decided to fight the Elections on its own. It set up one candidate in the double-member Khandwa constituency for the State Legislative Assembly, but lost the seat and thereafter it was rechristened as the Republican Party.

Bharatiya Jan Sangh

A district unit of Bharatiya Jan Sangh was established at Khandwa in November, 1951. Later, its branches were opened at Burhanpur, Harsud, Mundi, Kalmukhi, Singot and Pandhana. In the 1951-52 General Elections, the Jan Sangh set up a candidate for the Lok Sabha and having polled 35,905 (20.5 per cent) valid votes, it lost the seat. It also set up a candidate in Mundi constituency seat for the Vidhan Sabha and having secured 1,691 (9.0 per cent) valid votes lost the seat. In the General Elections of 1957, it contested both the seats in double-member Khandwa constituency to the State Assembly and failed to win any of them. In the General Elections of 1962, it set up a candidate for the Lok Sabha seat and having secured 56,753 votes lost the seat. For the State Legislature it contested all the six seats in the District but lost all of them. In all the six constituencies it polled 46,531 (25.01 per cent) valid votes.

Republican Party

Scheduled Caste Federation was replaced by Republican Party in the District. Its district, tahsil and city branches were opened at Burhanpur. Later, on the 4th August, 1961, the town branch was also opened at Khandwa. In the General Elections of 1962, the Republican Party contested the Lok Sabha seat. But having secured 19,139 votes, it failed to win the seat. For the Vidhan Sabha, out of six seats in the District, it contested Shahpur, Burhanpur and Pandhana constituency seats, but did not win any of them. In all the three constituencies, it polled only 7,673 (4.12 per cent) valid votes.

Swatantra Party

On the 15th December, 1960, an Ad-hoc Committee was constituted for the Party in Harsud Tahsil. For the Vidhan Sabha, the Swatantra Party set up three candidates in the District in the General Elections of 1962 and succeeded in winning Harsud and Khalwa constituency seats, while it lost Pandhana seat.

The following Table[1] shows the number of Lok Sabha and Vidhan Sabha seats under which this District was covered, number of electors, total number of valid votes polled, number of contesting candidates, seats won and the number of valid votes polled by the Congress, Praja Socialist, Swatantra and other

1. Reports on the First, Second and Third General Elections in India, Vol. II (1951-52, 1957 and 1962).

political parties including Independents at the 1951-52, 1957 and 1962 General Elections.—

Legislature and year of Election	(a) Number of seats (b) Number of electors (c) Total Number of valid votes polled	(a) Number of contesting candidates (b) Number of seats won (c) Number and percentage of valid votes polled by— Congress	P.S.P.	Swatantra	Others including Independents
LOK SABHA					
1951-52	(a) 1	1	—	—	4
	(b) 3,87,579	1	—	—	—
	(c) 1,75,023	83,228			(91,795)
		(47.5%)	—	—	(52.5%)
1957	(a) 1	1	1	—	—
	(b) 3,84,697	1	—	—	—
	(c) 2,01,869	1,27,526	74,343	—	—
		(63.17%)	(36.83%)		
1962	(a) 1	1	1	1	—
	(b) 4,49,704	1	—	—	2
	(c) 2,29,722	1,05,889	47,941	—	75,892
		(46.09%)	(20.87%)		(33.44%)
VIDHAN SABHA					
1951-62	(a) 6	6	—	—	12
	(b) 2.76,145	5	—	—	1
	(c) 1,69,835	85,346	—	—	84,489
		(50.25%)			(49.75%)
1957	(a) 6	6	4	—	4
	(b) 2,84,836	5	1	—	—
	(c) 2,05,404	1,28,871	46,853	—	29,680
		(62.74%)	(22.81%)		(11.55%)
1962	(a) 6	6	3	3	11
	(b) 3,39,251	3	1	2	—
	(c) 1,86,018	82.881	26,590	29,303	56,244
		(44.56%)	(14.13%)	(10.91%)	(30.23%)

NEWS-PAPERS

East Nimar District has always been one of the prominent publishing centres in the Central Provinces. In 1879-80. the first printing press, a lithographic press, was established at Burhanpur and its proprietor, Laxman Anant Prayagi, brought out the first Marathi weekly newspaper the *Subodh Sindhu* from there. In that year the number of presses and newspapers in the Central Provinces was only four and two, respectively. After sometime, the *Subodh Sindhu* shifted its place of publication to Khandwa. During 1884-85, it was published in Marathi and Hindi, while in the following year, in Marathi alone. Later, in 1887, it started publication again in Marathi and Hindi. The paper published poignant tales of people's suffering during famines of 1892 and 1894-96. It enjoyed a fairly large

circulation and purveyed all-India as well as provincial and local news. Occasionally, it contained comments on Government policy, which were, as a rule, frank and free but did not exceed the bounds of fair criticism. During 1908, the *Subodh Sindhu* was published in Marathi and English. After a chequered record of over half a century, the weekly ceased publication in the 'thirties.

The second attempt in this direction was made by Raghunathrao Balkrishna Bhide in 1881-82, when he brought out a Marathi weekly named *Arya Vaibhava* from Burhanpur. It ceased publication during 1887-88. Then, in the beginning of present century, a lithographed paper, in Urdu, was issued from Khandwa, which was in circulation till 1908. In the following year, a Hindi fortnightly, the *Farishta*, was started by the Roman Catholic Mission, at Khandwa. The other newspaper which started publication in 1909, was the *Gulzar-i-Hakimi*. It was non-political Gujrati weekly, published from Burhanpur, containing the views of progressive members of Bohra Community on religious and social matters. It ceased publication from August, 1951 but reappeared during 1953. It was followed by a monthly, the *Jati-Sudhar* in Hindi-Nimari, under the editorship of Kaluram Gangrade. In 1913, a monthly magazine of high literary value, the *Prabha* was brought out under the joint editorship of Kaluram Gangrade and Makhanlal Chaturvedi. Due to illness of Makhanlal Chaturvedi, it ceased publication from Khandwa in 1916.

The first political weekly, named *Madhya Bharat* was published in the District in 1922-23, under the editorship of Siddhanath Agarkar and Surajmal Jain. The weekly, published from Khandwa in Hindi, devoted itself mainly to the espousal of the cause of freedom movement in the States of Central India Agency in general and Indore State in particular. Agarkar, wielding a powerful pen, created tremendous popularity for the paper. His trenchant criticism of the administration of Indore State brought the inevitable punishment in its train. Its entry was banned within the State, resulting in grave financial loss to the paper. It was, therefore, closed down.

In 1925, the *Karmaveer* a Hindi weekly of high literary standard and with strong nationalist views, which was previously published from Jabalpur, started publication from Khandwa under the able chief-editorship of Makhanlal Chaturvedi. Later, it was also joined by Agarkar. The *Karmaveer* espoused the cause of freedom struggle in the States of Central India and in the Central Provinces to such a great extent that, during those years of stress and strife, people began to regard it as a political, social and literary institution. In most of the States of Central India its entry was temporarily prohibited from time to time. In view of the anti-Government articles, which the *Karmaveer* continued to publish during the Civil Disobedience Movement, inspite of warning, under the Press Ordinance, security was demanded from it. However, the *Karmaveer* preferred to cease publication rather than furnish the security. It resumed publication soon after, in the beginning of 1931 Its circulation was extended to Central India and United Provinces and had considerable influence in Hindi districts of Central Provinces. The *Karmaveer* is still being published from Khandwa.

For intensifying the election campaign, a Hindi daily newspaper called the *Desh Bandhu* was started from Khandwa in 1926, under the editorship of S. N. Agarkar. It was an organ of the Provincial Swarajya Party. It, however, ceased publication, after three months, having served the purpose for which it was founded. During this period a newspaper called the *Tapti Vijay* was brought out from Burhanpur but it was short-lived.

From 1931, the number of newspapers and periodicals gradually increased. On the 1st September, 1931, an important weekly, called the *Hindi Swarajya* was brought out from Khandwa under the editorship of S. N. Agarkar. It commanded great influence in the States of Central India. During its early years, like the *Karmaveer*, it also whole-heartedly devoted itself to stimulating national awakening and advancing the cause of freedom movement. The entry of this weekly was also temporarily prohibited in most of the States of Central India from time to time. In the beginning of 1952, *Swarajya* appeared as a bi-weekly but after a few months it was re-converted into a weekly. On the 20th October, 1958, the weekly *Hindi Swarajya* was amalgamated with the Daily Hindi *Swarajya* and is continuing publication. In 1933, a Hindi weekly called the *Krishak Bandhu* was started, which was popular among the agriculturists. In 1946, it shifted its place of publication from Harsud to Khandwa and continued upto 1951. *Narmadeya*, a Hindi monthly, was also started in 1933, from Khandwa, but it could not continue for long. It, however, resumed pubication in March 1960.

A weekly of note, which championed the cause of freedom movement was the *Ankush*, which started publication on the 12th September, 1934, from Khandwa. Its circulation was confined to the Nimar District and Indore State. Later, in 1949, it shifted its place of publication to Burhanpur. In 1935, a Hindi newspaper *Arya Sewak* which continued for several years, was started from Burhanpur. In the following year, the *Gram Sewak*, another Hindi newspaper made its appearance from Burhanpur. Then, appeared the *Vikram*, a Hindi weekly from Khandwa in 1939 but it was shortlived. In 1941, a literary monthly magazine, the *Agami-Kal* was started in Hindi from Khandwa. It temporarily ceased publication owing to the detention of the editor during the 1942 movement. In September, 1947, it was converted into a weekly and continued, although irregularly, upto September, 1958. The *Princely India*, an English weekly appeared in 1943 but was soon discontinued. This weekly of over 22 years of standing had changed its place of publication from Delhi to Bombay in 1942. Then it was shifted to Indore, and later on to Khandwa.

The spread of literacy, in the post-Independence period, gave a fillip to the growth of newspapers and periodicals in the District. They were devoted to all sorts of subjects—political, social, literary and religious. Early in 1948, a fortnightly in Hindi, called the *Gram Vani*, devoted to the uplift of rural masses, started publication from Khandwa but it ceased publication from 15th October, 1948. From Burhanpur, a Hindi weekly, called the *Vijay*, devoted to religion, was started in 1949 It stopped publication in the following year. On the 15th

August, 1952, the Municipal Council, Burhanpur started publication of a fortnightly, named *Nagar-Sewika* in Hindi. It contained articles mostly on civic affairs. After about two years it appeared as a monthly and continued upto 15th February, 1956. After a gap of a few years it reappeared on the 15th September, 1961 as a quarterly, styled as *Nagar-Sewa*. A weekly in Hindi, the *Sachitra Mazdoor*, started publication from Khandwa in July, 1953, but was amalgamated with Hindi *Swarajya* after a month. It was, however, again separated in October, 1954 and continued publication till June, 1962. In 1956, a weekly in Hindi, the *Janamat* was started from Khandwa, which continued for about one year. A literary and cultural monthly, called the *Naye Chiragh* in Urdu was started from Khandwa in 1958. On the 1st February, 1959, a Hindi fortnightly, the *Burhanpur Samachar*, started publication from Burhanpur and continued upto April, 1961.

During this period most of the educational institutions brought out their own magazines. The first to appear in 1954 was *S. M. Baharistan*, an Urdu quarterly, of the Normal School, Khandwa. It continued for about two years. In 1956, another quarterly, the *Akash*, was published by the Quaderia Higher Secondary School, Burhanpur. The other annual magazines brought out by the educational institutions during this period were the *Tridhara, Prerana, Jagriti, Mandakini* and *Prayasa*, published from Khandwa while *Srijan* and Quaderia Higher Secondary School Magazine were published from Burhanpur.

According to the Registrar of News papers for India following news-papers and periodicals, were being published in the District in the year 1964. Among the dailies figured *Swarajya* (Khandwa) and *Subhadra* (Burhanpur). The latter was started in 1964. There were also two weeklies published in the District. Of them *Majdoor* was published from Khandwa, while Burhanpur continued to be the place of publication of *Ankush*. The only Urdu fortnightly, *Paygam-e-Burhanpur* started in 1963-64, and the only half-yearly *Shiksha-Yugantar*, published by the Government Basic Training School from the year 1947, were published from Burhanpur and Khandwa, respectively.

Besides the local papers, a large number of outside papers are in circulation in the District. Reading public of the District still relies for its news upon these papers which maintain a steady circulation. Among the English dailies, the *Free Press Journal*, the *Times of India*, and the *Indian Express*, all published from Bombay and *Hitavada* and the *Madhya Pradesh Chronicle*, published from Bhopal are widely read. As regards Hindi dailies, *Nav Bharat Times* (Bombay), *Hindustan* (Delhi), *Nav Bharat* (Bhopal), *Nai Duniya, Jagaran* (Indore) and *Yugadharma* (Jabalpur) have large circulation. The *Lok Satta, Maharashtra Times, Maratha* and *Nava Shakti* from Bombay, *Gawakari* from Nasik, and *Kesari* from Poona cater to Marathi-reading public, whereas *Janma Bhumi* and *Bombay Samachar*, both from Bombay, are popular in Gujrati-reading circle. Urdu-reading public largely depends for its daily news on *Pratap* and *Al-Jamiat* (Delhi) and *Urdu Times* (Bombay). The *Inquilab* (Bombay), and *Hindustan* are popular among Sindhi-reading public.

VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

There has been a fairly long tradition of voluntary social service organisations in the District, which have rendered significant service in literary, cultural and educational spheres. The first to be established in the District, in 1869, was Khandwa Jnan Prasarak Sabha. It aimed at spreading useful knowledge amongst the public at Khandwa. A branch of the Sabha was, later, started for the benefit of the teachers of the District. Details of these societies have already been given in the Chapter on Education and Culture. In April, 1870, the Burhanpur Public Library was established. In early 1871, one Jnan Prasarak Sabha was established at Burhanpur also. This was followed by the establishment of the Panchayat Sabha in 1875, which was probably replaced by the Sarvajanik Sabha in 1883. These were started with a view to discussing subjects of public interest. Three other organisations that came into existence between 1881 and 1883 were the Balkaumudi Sabha, the Prayatnik Sabha and the Students Meeting. Of these, the first was established at Khandwa and the other two at Burhanpur. Nothing was heard about these societies subsequently, excepting Balkaumadi Sabha which was functioning till about 1894-95. Following the visit of Dayanand to Khandwa in 1873, branches of Arya Samaj were established at Khandwa and Burhanpur, in 1873 and 1882, respectively. Later, the young Arya Samajists organised Arya Kumar Sabhas at Burhanpur in 1918 and at Khandwa in 1938. The branches of the Samaj were also opened at Rustampur and Bhanderiya.

In 1904-05 and 1909, respectively, the Bhanu Kavi Samaj and Sanatan Dharma Sabha were established at Khandwa. The Anjuman Islamia Hakimia Society, Burhanpur, too, was formed in 1909. This society started a *Madarasa* which was raised to High School in 1912 and to Hakimia Multipurpose Higher Secondary School in 1958. Hindi Sahitya Samiti, established earlier, was in existence at Khandwa in 1910 and later Hindi Granth Prasarak Mandal was formed, which published four literary books. Hindi Sahitya Samiti was also established at Burhanpur in 1945. At Khandwa, in 1913, a Sanskrit Pathashala was established and in order to look after its management the Paropkarini Sabha was formed. This Sabha started a Kanya Shala and a Shishu Shala also. The management of the Sanskrit Pathashala and the Kanyashala was handed over to the Municipal Council, Khandwa, after a few years. Both the institutions are functioning. Shri Narmadeshwar Prasadik Natya Mandali was also established in 1914 at Khandwa. It used to perform *Ram-Lila* and dramas. Later, it was converted into a theatrical company called Shri Manikya Natya Mandal.

In the year 1917, the Quadaria High School Society was formed at Burhanpur. It conducts the following educational institutions: Quadaria Boys' Higher Secondary School, Vijnan Mahavidyalaya, Grih Vijnan Mahavidyalaya, a Girls' Higher Secondary School, Boys' Urdu Primary School, Girls' Urdu Primary School, Bal Mandir and a hostel, all at Burhanpur. On 2nd October, 1942, the Jnanvardhini Sabha was organized at Burhanpur. It opened a library also with

250 books. At present, the library has 11,000 books. The Sabha arranges cultural programmes and has published two books so far.

The year 1944 and 1946 saw the establishment of the Lalbag Education Society, Burhanpur, and the Nimar Education Society, Khandwa, respectively. Details of the activities of both these societies have already been given in a previous Chapter. On 23rd December, 1945, the Bharatiya Shiksha Samiti was formed at Burhanpur so as to facilitate the functioning of Bharatiya Vidyalaya, which was established earlier on 1st July, 1942. It is functioning as a recognised Higher Secondary School. In 1947, the Muslim Nomainda was established at Burhanpur to maintain inter-communal harmony and look after social welfare. It helps poor students and manages grave-yards, fairs and festivals. Ten local *Madarasas* (religious schools) are receiving its help annually. The Janata Library Society was also formed at Burhanpur in 1951. It arranges literary programmes, besides running Janata Library.

History of the activities of Lok Shikshan Samiti, Khandwa, has been given in the Chapter on Education and Culture. At Burhanpur, the Seva Sadan Educational Society started Seva Sadan Mahavidyalaya on 2nd August, 1954. The Mahavidyalaya commenced with 20 students in Arts College and, by November, 1962, the enrolment increased to 440 in Arts, Commerce and Law faculties upto Degree standard. In 1954, the Anjuman-Moinuttul-Ba, an organisation for educational advancement was formed at Burhanpur. It aids poor and orphan students by way of scholarships. The average number of beneficiaries is 107. It is running two primary schools in the rural areas of Burhanpur Tahsil. In 1955, the Burhanpur Historical Society was formed in order to collect authentic historical accounts about the local mounments etc, and to publish literature on them. It has published one booklet in Hindi, named *Burhanpur Parichaya*, in 1957. In June, 1956 the Haideriah Society, Khandwa was formed. It is running a primary school, a library, a sewing class for ladies and a *Madarasa*. On 26th February, 1958, the Ayurvedic Shikshan Mandal was formed at Burhanpur and on the 2nd August of the same year it started the Ayurved Mahavidyalaya. The Mandal is also running an Ayurvediya Dharmarth Aushadhalaya at Burhanpur. On 28th June, 1961 the Anupam Ayurved Vidyalaya Samiti was formed at Burhanpur in order to manage Anupam Ayurved Vidyalaya.

Physical Welfare Organisations

Of these Shri Pandharinath Akhada, Sindhipura, Burhanpur is the oldest. It was established as early as in 1900 with the object of promoting physical welfare. In the following year, the Model Club was founded at Burhanpur. It is a registered club and has its own building and tennis-court. The year 1904 saw the establishment of the Nimar Cricket Gymkhana Club, Khandwa. Since then it has made steady progress. In 1912, on the west of Gymkhana grounds, a pavilion was erected. The club has made conservency arrangements and constructed servant-quarters and a garden. Since its inception, the Deputy

Commissioner (Collector) East Nimar has been its President. It is a registered club and, at present, it is affiliated to the Madhya Pradesh Cricket Association, Indore. In 1926, the Hanuman Vyayamshala was established at Burhanpur. It had strong political leanings. Another Akhada with the same name was established at Khandwa for Maharashtrian boys in 1931. In 1937, with the object of promoting physical welfare of the rural masses, the Balaji Vyayam Shala was established at Jainabad, Burhanpur. This was followed by the establishment of the Nimar Zila Tournaments Association in 1940. In 1952 its name was changed to East Nimar District Olympic Association, Khandwa. All the schools of the District are affiliated to it. There are also tahsil branches of the Association. It is affiliated to Madhya Pradesh Olympic Association, Jabalpur. In 1954, the Hamrahi Club, Khandwa, and the Burhanpur Gymkhana Association were founded. In 1956, the Shamrao Akhada, Shahpur was established. Recently, 14 new *Akhadas* have been organised in rural areas of the district. The Directorate of Panchayats and Social Welfare has given Rs. 435 to each new *Akhada* as grant-in-aid. In additon to this, the Directorate has also given grants-in-aid to District Olympic Association, Khandwa, Tahsil Olympic Association, Khandwa, Burhanpur and Harsud, Nimar Cricket Gymkhana Club, Khandwa, Gymkhana Club, Khandwa, Gymkhana Association, Burhanpur, and East Nimar Hockey Association, Khandwa.

Orphanages

In the early years of the present Century, an orphanage supported by the American Evangelical Mission was functioning at Burhanpur. It was also aided from Provincial funds. At Khandwa, the St. Joseph's Convent maintained a school for European and Eurasian children. The school was supported by contributions from the Government, the Municipality and the railway companies. The Directorate of Panchayats and Social Welfare also gives grant-in-aid to St. Joseph's Convent Girls' High School, Khandwa.

A sectional orphanage, Baitut-Taleen, is in existence at Burhanpur. In 1920, an *Anathalaya* was established at Khandwa with three orphans who were left behind in the epidemic of influenza of 1918. After some time, the *Anathalaya* was renamed as Hindu Anathalaya and finally in 1949, as Hindu Bal Sewa Sadan. To make the orphans self-supporting and independent, the Sadan has made arrangements for their training in handicrafts, cooking, etc. In 1959, a primary school has also been opened by the orphanage mainly for the inmates of the Sadan. During the first 39 years of its life, 1,239 orphans were benefited by it. From 1st April, 1955, to 31st March 1962, the number of orphans admitted in the Sadan was 287. Marriages of 24 girls were also performed. On 31st March, 1962 the number of orphans in Sadan was 86, which included 61 boys, 23 girls, 1 widow and 1 *Sadhava* (married woman). From 1958-59 to 1962-63, the Directorate of Panchayats and Social Welfare has given Rs. 32,400 to the Sadan by way of grant-in-aid. It is registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860 and Madhya Pradesh Public Trust Act 1951.

Organisations for Service of Women and Children

In September, 1928, the Red-Cross Infant Welfare Committee was formed at Khandwa. Later, in 1936, its branch was opened at village Loni. It is affiliated to Red-Cross Society, Madhya Pradesh Branch. It runs two child welfare centres. The average number of annual beneficiaries is about 950 women and 2,000 children.

For the advancement of women of Burhanpur, the Mahila Mandal was established. It organises social and cultural programmes. It helps financially the needy and poor women of the society and organises sports, games and exhibitions. The ladies of Bohra community have also established a club. Its members take active part in games, sports, cultural programmes and exhibitions.

On 1st January, 1948, the Vanita Vihar was established at Burhanpur in order to ameliorate the social and economic condition of women. With a view to providing education to children on Montessori system it is running a Shishu Vihar and for ladies a sewing class. Its activities include organisation of cooking exhibitions, baby-shows, debates and training in handicrafts. On 7th January, 1956 it was registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860.

In Khandwa town, the Arya Mahila Samaj was established on 11th February, 1935 with a view to working for the unity and uplift of women. The Samaj runs a sewing class and gives sewing machines on hire. It arranges social and religious programmes and imparts training to ladies in handicrafts and weaving. It is a registered organisation. In 1936, the Mahila Jnan Mandal, Khandwa, was formed. It started a circulating library and arranged lectures and baby-shows. It cotinued for about five years.

On 22nd December, 1947, the Nimar Vanita Vishwa, Khandwa, was established. It is a registered organisation and is affiliated to the Akhil Bharatiya Mahila Parishad, Delhi. The Vanita Vishwa is running a Bal Mandir and tailoring classes. It organises cultural, social and religious programmes. In 1950-51, about 700 women were made literate through its efforts The Madhya Pradesh Government has awarded a certificate to it for its meritorious services in the field of Small Savings Scheme.

Another organisation, established in the town, was Mahila Seva Samaj but it could not make much headway. For imparting pre-primary education on Montessori system to children, Bal Niketan, Khandwa, was founded on 9th July, 1962 It is recognised by the Government and is known as Shrimati Chandrabai Roopchandra, Bal Niketan, Khandwa. In addition, there is a Convent run by the Roman Catholic Church.

Organisations for the Advancement of Backward Classes and Tribes

As regards the advancement of Scheduled Castes, a branch of the Harijan Sewak Sangh was established at Khandwa in 1932. After Gandhi's visit to

Khandwa and Burhanpur in December, 1933, another organisation called the Harijan Sangh was organised at Burhanpur for the uplift of Scheduled Castes. Later, the Nimar Zila Harijan Sewa Samiti was constituted at Khandwa in 1950. After the formation of new Madhya Pradesh, in November, 1956, the Harijan Sewak Sangh Office of Mahakoshal Region was merged with the new Pradesh office and the district branch of Harijan Sewak Sangh, Khandwa, came under the Regional Office, Indore. The Sangh has established a Balwadi at Khandwa, where powdermilk is distributed to Harijan children. Its main activity is directed to the removal of untouchability. Another active organisation in this field is the Mehtar Kamgar Sangh, Nagarpalika, Khandwa. It was registered under the Societies Registration Act of 1860. During this period, the Harijan Seva Samaj, Khandwa, also came into existence on 10th September, 1956. It was registered under the Societies Registration Act in 1957-58. The Samaj organises meetings in the Harijan colonies for propagating social education and gives scholarships and other financial help to needy Harijan students. It has done some constructive work in the District. Besides, there are local Harijan Sewak Sangh at Burhanpur and Harsud and Mehtar Samaj Municipal Kamgar Sangh at Burhanpur.

For the uplift of the Scheduled Tribes, the Madhya Pradesh Vanvasi Sewa Mandal has done pioneer work in Khandwa and Burhanpur tahsils. East Nimar District is covered under Hoshangabad Zone of the Mandal, with its zonal office at Harda. In April, 1954 the Mandal established one middle school at village Punasa and five primary schools, one each at Bamnada, Bhilai Kheda, Chhirkhan, Bhutani and Damkheda villages of Khandwa Tahsil. Later a hostel, with a capacity of 30 students, was established at Punasa. In Burhanpur Tahsil, the Mandal established one middle school at Dedhtalai and five primary schools, one each at villages Ramakheda, Dait, Dahinda, Dangurla and Khatla. Later, a hostal with a capacity of 30 students was also established at Dedhtalai. In November, 1962, there were 50 students of Scheduled Tribes and 45 of other communities in both the middle schools while the number of Scheduled Tribes boarders was 48. In all the ten primary schools, the number of Scheduled Tribes students was 303, Harijans 14 and other communities 121. In every school a *pucka* drinking water well has been constructed and provision has also been made for free distribution of medicines, particularly to Scheduled Tribes. For all these activities, the Mandal gets cent-per-cent grant-in-aid from the State Government. Since 1963, management of all these institutions has been taken over by the office of the District Organiser of Tribal Welfare.

Bharat Scouts and Guides Association

On 15th August, 1948, the Bharat Scouts and Guides Association, East Nimar District, was established at Khandwa. In the beginning, its activities were confined to Khandwa and Burhanpur towns. The Association made steady progress and its activities were extended to Harsud, Pandhana, Nepanagar, Bir and Barur. It arranges Scouts Rally and Camp every year.

Bharat Sewak Samaj

The District branch of the Bharat Sewak Samaj was established at Khandwa in 1953. A branch was opened at Nepanagar in 1954. There were district, town and tahsil branches at Khandwa, tahsil and town branches at Burhanpur, and tahsil branch at Harsud in 1962. Under this organisation, Yuvak Samaj has also been organised. It is affiliated to the State Bharat Sewak Samaj. Through the efforts of Bharat Sewak Samaj, a road and a veterinary hospital were constructed in village Sibalgram in 1955 and a hockey field was prepared at Khandwa in 1957. At Nepanagar, a multipurpose co-operative society and a milk delivery centre have been established, and a primary school and *Kala-Kendra* were being maintained. From December, 1959 to March, 1962, it organised 11 camps in rural areas which were attended by 605 persons. They offered *Shramdan* of the value of about Rs. 11,570 for construction and other works. In 1961, the Samaj collected Rs. 3,400 in cash and foodgrains and clothes for Prime Minister's Relief Fund.

CHAPTER XIX

PLACES OF INTEREST

Asirgarh *(21°28'N and 76°18'E)*

It is a celebrated hill fort in the Burhanpur Tahsil. It is about 30 miles (48 kms.) south of Khandwa and 14 miles (22.4 kms.) north of Burhanpur. The fort is connected by *pucka* roads with the two places. The fort of Asirgarh is situated in the forest range of the same name on an outlying spur of an isolated hill of the Satpura range which is 259.1 metres high from the base and 701 metres above the sea-level. As narrated in the Chapter on History, the fort was occupied by the Faruqi kings of Khandesh in about 1400 A.D. and they made it for sometime their capital and greatly strengthened it. Adil Khan II (1457-1503 A.D.), the fifth King of the line, had constructed the lower fort called Malaigarh. Asirgarh was their principal stronghold to which they always retired whenever their later day capital of Burhanpur was threatened by hostile armies. The point occupied by the fort was looked upon as of great strategic value. It commanded the high way of hoary antiquity leading through the Satpura range from northern to southern India and passing from the foot of Asir hill. The fortress was nearly impregnable due to its great height and its unfailing supply of water. When it was reduced to surrender by Akbar's generals in A.D. 1600[1] so overjoyed was Akbar that he recorded the capture not only on the walls of Jami Masjid at Burhanpur and on the rock of Asirgarh itself, but also on a gold medal which bears the proud inscription, *Zarb Asir* (struck at Asir). Obverse of it has a falcon, emblematic of his swoop on Asir. With the downfall of Mughals, the fort passed into the hands of the Nizam of Hyderabad who later by the treaty of A.D. 1760 gave it to Peshwa Baji Rao. The Peshwa made it over to Sindhia in A.D. 1778. In 1803, it was captured from Daulat Rao Sindia by a detachment of General Wellesley's army. Later after the restoration of peace it was again made over to Sindhia. Asirgarh was besieged and captured for a second time by the British in 1819, as Appa Saheb Bhonsla of Nagpur and the Pindari Chief, Chitu had sought shelter there. During the days of the Great Uprising of 1857, detachment of Gwalior contingent, then occupying Asirgarh, waited for an opportunity to break into revolt but soon other detachments of infantry and cavalry disarmed the rebels.

The fort of Asirgarh consists of three separate lines of constructions. The uppermost, known as Asirgarh proper, measures at its greatest some 1,100 yards

1. Report of the Archaeological Survey of India, Vol. IX, pp. 118-119.

in length and 600 in width north to south. But the shape is irregular. Of the two fortifications below it, the higher one is called Kamargarh and the lower Malaigarh. The fort, including the lower work of Malaigarh, is nearly one mile in length by half a mile in breadth. Colonel Blacker has described the hill and the crowning fort on it in the following terms[1] "Round the foot of the wall enclosing the area is a bluff precipice from 80 to 120 feet in perpendicular depth and so well scarped as to leave no avenues of ascent except at two places. To fortify these has, therefore, been the principal care in constructing the upper fort, for the wall which skirts the precipices is no more than a low curtain except where the guns are placed in battery. This is one of the few hill-forts possessing abundant supply of water, which is not commanded within common range but it fully participates in the common disadvantages attending similar places of strength by affording cover in every direction to the approaches of an enemy through the numerous ravines by which its inferior ramifications are separated. In one of these, which terminates within the upper fort, is the northern avenue where the hill is highest, and to bar the access to the place at that point an outer rampart, containing 4 casements with embrasures, 18 feet high, as many thick, and 190 feet long crosses it from one part of the interior wall to another where a re-entering angle is formed by works. A sally-port of extraordinary construction descends through the rock at the south-eastern extremity and is easily blocked on necessity by dropping down materials at certain stages which are open to the top. The principal avenue to the fort is on the south-west side, where there is consequently a double line of works above, the lower of which, 25 feet in height, runs along the foot of the bluff precipice and the entrance passes through 5 gateways by a steep ascent of stone steps. The masonry here is uncommonly fine as the natural impediments are on this side least difficult; and on this account a third line of works, called the lower fort, embraces an inferior branch of the hill immediately above the *pettah*.[2] The wall is about 30 feet in height with towers, and at its northern and southern extremities it ascends to connect itself with the upper works. The *pettah*, which is by no means large, has a parting wall on the southern side, where there is a gate, but in other quarters it is open and surrounded by ravines and deep hollows extending far in every direction". To the south-east, only one-quarter of a mile distant from the wall, there is a small but lofty hill, known as Koraya Pahad which is mentioned in *Akbarnama*,[3] as being so close to the fort as to have command over it. Akbar's generals knowing this seized and occupied it.[4]

Besides the fort, another noteworthy monument is the Jami Masjid. Picturesquely imposed on the crest of the hill-fort with its towering minarets, visible for many miles around, the mosque was built by Raja Ali Khan Faruqi in A.D. 1588. The mosque contains, besides an Arabic, a Sanskrit inscription giving the genealogy of the Faruqis. The architectural features of the mosque

1. Blacker, Memoir of Maratha War, 1817-1819, p. 415.
2. It seems to signify a village which was defended by an embankment.
3. Report of the Archaeological Survey of India, Vol. IX, p. 119.
4. Ibid.

are indigenous to the locality and reflect little of the outside influence.[1] Raised on a high plinth the prayer chamber is a specious hall open on the east front and divided into multiple bays intersecting arches of pointed form carried on piers. The west wall contains the main central *mihrab* and a series of *mihrabs*, of which last have latterly been converted into little window openings.[2] On one of the pillars of the prayer hall there is an inscription which records the victory of Akbar and his subsequent visit to Asirgarh. In front of the prayer hall is a quadrangular court enclosed on its other three sides by an arcaded *dalan* repeating the features of mosque facade and in the eastern side of the enclosing arcade, at its southern end a triple-arched entrance affords access to the mosque. This mosque built earlier than the Jami-Masjid of Burhanpur is an enlarged replica of this mosque. The whole work was excellently finished.

Besides Jami Masjid, there is an old Hindu[3] temple in the fort with a deep well which has a gate opening into a passage through which one could go outside the fort in case of emergency. As regards other antiquarian monuments, mention may be made of various inscriptions. It seems highly probable that some of these epigraphical records were transferred and removed from one place to another. There are four rock-cut inscriptions now set in a line near the main entrance. Of these the inscription ascribed to Akbar gives the date of the conquest of the fort as A.H. 1009 or A.D. 1600, one commemorates the building of mosque in Shahjahan's reign and another records the transfer of the place to Aurangzeb. Besides, two more inscribed stone slabs are there; one recording a construction of the gate-way in 1063 Hijri (1553 A.D.) when Manahar Das Gaud, younger son of Gopal Das was killedar there and another of 1710 V.S. (1653 A.D.) mentioning Manahar Das. It is now at the Phuta Darwaja on the old ascent.

Now all the monuments are under the conservation and protection of the Central Archaeology Department. There is a P.W.D. rest house at the foot of the fort, on Burhanpur road.

Like the fort of Asir, the village Asir had experienced joys and sorrows and witnessed the rise and fall of many dynasties. It was formerly in the 16th Century a large city and was famous for its vineyards which once grew excellent variety of grapes as late[4] as 1870. The village has a primary school. It has a population of 436 persons and an area of 1,133 acres. There is a jeepable fair-weather road to reach the top of the fort.

In the vicinity of Asirgarh there is a tomb of Shah Nomani Asiri, a saint, believer in Sufism and a disciple of famous Saint Hazrat Shah Bhikhari. He

1. Report of the Archaeological Survey of India, 1922-23, p. 45.
2. Ibid.
3. This temple is shown as the seat of worship of Asvatthama of Mahabharat fame. *Ain* describes Asir as a place of worship of the same warrior. *Ain-i-Akbari*, by H.S. Jarret and revised by J.N. Sarkar, Vol. II, 1949, p. 234.
4. Nimar Settlement Report, 1870., p. 200.

died at Asir in 1776 A.D. A mausoleum was erected over his tomb. Formerly a great fair used to be held at the place. Now an annual *Urs* is held there. Moti Mahal, ths burial place of Moti Begam, beloved of Shah Jahan, is to the left of the fort and is situated on the bank of Pandhar river. The beautiful building constructed by Shah Jahan is a protected monument. Besides, two miles to the north of Asirgarh on the main road there is an *Idgah* having an inscription, mentioning Adil Shah's name.

Bahadurpur *(21° 17'N and 76° 10'E)*

This large village of the Burhanpur Tahsil lies at a distance of 4 miles (6.4 kms) to the south-west of Burhanpur. Both the places are connected by *pucka* road on which buses and tongas ply. The place was founded by Bahadur Khan, the last of the Faruqi kings and named after him. English[1] travellers of 17th Century mention the place as a fair city having a mint. They found it in a marvellous, great and populous country. Between Bahadurpur and Burhanpur, there was a large camp of the Khan Khanan of Khandesh. Water was carried to the place through a separate underground channel from old water-works of Burhanpur. The supply still continues. Bahadurpur has a tomb of Mohammad Shah Dulla, the founder of the *Pirzada* Sect. An annual *Urs* is held at the tomb. The place has a Gram Panchayat, a bidi manufacturing industry, hand-loom and power-loom industry. A weekly market is held on Sundays. Extra departmental branch post office, two primary schools, and Gram Sewak Office are located here. The place is electrified. According to the Census of 1961 the population of the place is 3,713 as against 3,081 in 1951 and 2,400 in 1901. It occupies an area of 1,911 acres.

Burhanpur *(21° 18' N and 76° 14' E)*

The historical town of Burhanpur named after Sheikh Burhanud-din stands on the north bank of the Tapti river. The town, largest in the District, is on the Bombay-Delhi main-line of the Central Railway, 310 miles (504 Kms.) from Bombay, about 43 miles (68.8 Kms.) from Khandwa and 14 miles (22.4 Kms.) from Asirgarh. As has been mentioned earlier, the town is said to have been founded in A.D. 1400 by Nasir Khan Faruqi, of the Faruqi dynasty of Khandesh, on the site of the old town of Vasana or Basana-Kheda.[2] It was the usual residence of all the later Faruqi kings who transferred their capital to Burhanpur. The town was thus the capital for about two hundred years until Khandesh was finally annexed by Akbar in A.D. 1600. During this period the capital of Burhanpur was repeatedly sacked by the rival Muslim rulers of the Deccan, Ahmadnagar, Malwa and Gujarat.

Of the interesting monuments, the oldest[3] is the Bibi Masjid built by one of the queens of Faruqi kings, probably, between A.D. 1520 and 1540. The Masjid, now in ruins, is one of the most important architectural remains. The Masjid is a

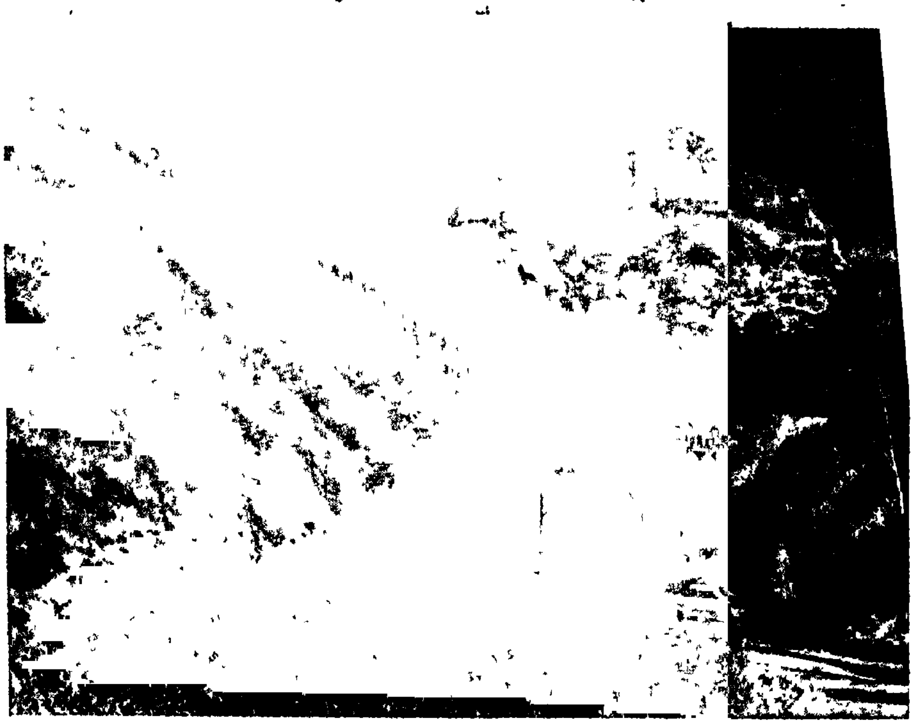
1. William Foster, Early Travels in India, pp. 16 and 131-147.
2. Report of the Archaeological Survey of India, Vol. IX, p. 115.
3. Ibid.

simple rectangle in plan over 132 feet long by over 48 broad outside, the walls being 4½ feet thick. The roof was supported on four rows of square pillars, forming five aisles in length and fifteen in breadth. Front wall has three large arches and on each side of the main entrance there is a massive square tower, with the angles indented after the fashion of Hindu temples. In the piers between the arches there are smaller openings, each being covered in front by a small projecting balcony. In the interior, opposite each of the three large arches, the four middle pillars are omitted, and the open space is covered by a large dome springing from the octagon, formed in the Hindu fashion. The two towers, which flank the middle arch, are five storeyed in height. Only two lower storeys are of stone, the three upper ones being of brick. This led scholars to conclude that they were originally the flanking towers of a central screen wall. Upper storeys of brick are later additions. It is also held that there is a brick-addition to the whole of the front wall of the Masjid, which has been heightened by building a brick wall of 8 feet on the top of the original stone battlements. Scholars have opined that the Masjid was never in a finished state. The work on the Masjid was suddenly stopped. The Masjid is in too ruinous a condition.

Jami Masjid of the town resembles in its plan the Bibi Masjid. It is one of the finest and very substantial buildings which has withstood the ravages of time and weather in a remarkable manner. But its appearance is rather marred by the disproportion between the very long, low arched facade and the lofty (120 feet in height) *minars* that flank at its extreme ends. Unlike Bibi Masjid, it has no front wall and all the fifteen arches are open to the court. The front is 157 feet and the depth 54 feet.[1] The date of the building is recorded in its inscriptions both in Arabic and in Sanskrit as corresponding to A.C. 1589 during the reign of Raja Alikhan or Adil Shah, the Faruqi King who had also built Jami Masjid on similar pattern but in a miniature form in the fort of Asir. The Sanskrit record gives genealogy of the Faruqi kings claiming descent from the kings of Ghazni. These inscriptions are placed in the right corner of the back wall inside the Masjid. Outside the wall of the left hand *minar* there is a short inscription of Akbar dated A.D. 1600 in which he records his conquest of Asir and Khandesh. The Masjid is an unusually plain building, its exterior ornament being confined to a floriated battlements which run all round the walls, while the only ornament of the interior is lavished on the pilasters of the niches in the back wall. These are all highly carved. It seems that other intended ornamentation was stopped by Akbar's conquest. Some of the work, it is said, was completed by Akbar. The roof is vaulted through out, with pendents at all the points of intersection of the vaults. The front view, due to its harmonious symmetry, creates a pleasing effect.

Faruqi King Adil Khan I is reported to have built many fine places and a citadel or fort in Burhanpur (Badshahi Qila), of which, however, there are very few remains. The fort or citadel now in ruins stands some 80 feet high on the

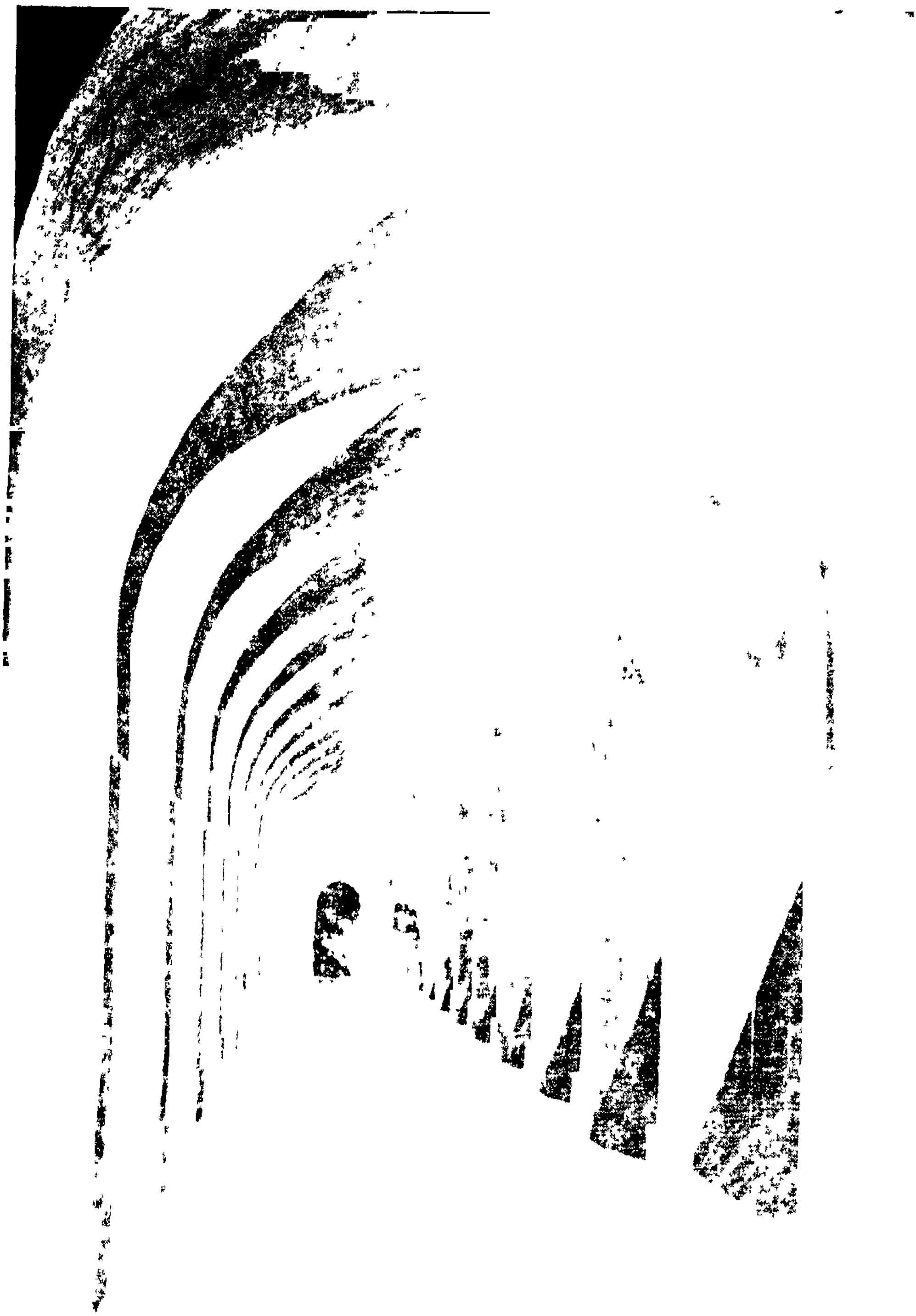
1. Nimar District Gazetteer pp. 216-17



Asirgarh Fort



Mosque, Asirgarh Fort



Row of Arches in the Prayer Hall of the Mosque, Asirgarh

right bank of the Tapti, and is now represented only by a pair of minarets of primitive form which rise from the ruins of the Qila ki Masjid (Pir Banna Masjid) a massively built monument, having a remarkably tall cupola. These are the protected monuments. *Idgah* near the town is also ascribed to Adil Khan I under whom Burhanpur and the whole kingdom attained a degree of prosperity which they had never known under any of the former rulers.

Besides these, tombs of Nasir Khan and Adil Shah deserve mention. The former is a simple structure, four square in plan, with flat facades relieved by shallow central projecting bays. It is surmounted by a massive dome imposted on a high octagonal drum. A continuous and boldly projecting *chhajja* cornice, carried on carved brackets, shaded each front originally but this has disappeared long ago Above the *chhajja* a deep parapet is divided by a subsidiary string course, the lower portion containing a frieze of shallow *mihrab*-shaped panels, which feature is echoed in the facade below. Crowning the parapets are the remains of a few free standing *Kanguras*, and the large dome terminates in a tall finial. Three arched openings, infilled with perforated stone *jali*-screens pierce each facade, except the west, which accommodates the *mihrab*. The whole structure is raised on a high pedium or *chabutra* reached by a flight of steps on the west side.

The tomb of Adil Shah is adjacent to it. Tombs of some other Faruqi queens and kings are also there. These stand on high plinth and are tastefully carved, all being square outside and octagonal inside. The interiors of the tombs are decorated with frescoes now indistinct. The tombs of the kings have Persian inscription, partly obliterated by white-wash and plaster. From the year A.D. 1600 onwards Burhanpur became the second most important city of the Mughal empire.

Being a seat of viceroys, the city was greatly extended and embellished. *Ain-i-Akbari* mentions Burhanpur as a city of gardens in some of which sandalwood was grown As stated earlier in the chapter on Industries, and Banking, Trade and Commerce, Burhanpur was internationally famous for its fine cloth manufacturing, gold-wire drawing and other allied industries and crafts and its banking and trade activities carried by peoples of all nations residing there. During the Mughal rule, in A.D. 1614, Sir Thomas Roe, ambassador from James I of England to the Emperor Jahangir, paid a visit to Prince Parwez at Burhanpur. Sir Thomas Roe obtained permission and established a factory in the city by the *firmans* of the Prince. William Finch (1608-11) refers to Burhanpur as a very great city. Fine gardens and castle are mentioned by others.[1] From A.D. 1635, when Burhanpur was reduced to the status of the capital of only Subah of Khandesh, including Berar, the prosperity of the town began to wane. Famous French traveller Tavernier twice visited the city in A.D. 1641, and also in 1659 when he found the great city "much ruined".

1. William Foster, op. cit., pp. 16, 137-38.

Of the monuments of the Mughal period most important are some tombs, *zenana* baths and an elaborete system of water works. Tomb[1] of Shah Nawaz Khan, a soldier of fortune, whose sister was married to Shah Jahan, is a large heavy stone building elevated on the bank of the river Utaoli, one mile (1.6. kms) from Burhanpur. Shah Nawaz Khan was a son of the Khan Khanana, Mirza Abdul Rahim Khan, and grandson of Khan Khanan, Bairam Khan, both highest officials of the Mughal court. The tomb is a pleasing structure, four square in plan, enclosed by lower arcaded verandahs and surmounted by a large dome. Deep continuous *chhajjas* shade both the verandahs and the recessed upper facade, and at each corner of the structure rises a prominently attached *minar* fenestrated above and crowned by a little dome. Groynes had to be buit to stop the erosion of the bank of Utaoli. The tomb, which stands outside the fort wall beyond the Itwara gate, is possibly of Begam Shah Shuja. The walls within the building have been decorated with a kind of fresco painting which has become very dirty and indistinct. The dome of this *makbara* is like a shape of *kharbuza*. The most sacred tomb[2] which also stands on the bank of the river Utaoli is of the saint Hazrat Shah Bhikhari. An *Urs* attended by thousands of devotees from surrounding districts, is held at the *dargah* on the 12th day of the Muslim month of Rabi-ul-Awal every year.

On the south bank of the Tapti, near Jainabad and just opposite to the Badshah Qila of Burhanpur, stands Ahukhana 'deer park' or Bag-o-Jainabad or Bag-Alam-ara' constructed by Akbar's son Daniyal, the first Mughal governor of the Deccan residing at the Capital Burhanpur. It was a pleasure garden and hunting ground of Mughal princes. The incomplete work is said to have been completed by Emperor Shah Jahan who is associated with the construction of two splendid buildings and *karanjas*. Eastern part was occupied by the garden for which water was brought through a 7 mile canal from Mahalgulara, another pleasure pavilion of the Mughals, described later. The dead body of Queen Mumtaz Mahal, who died at Burhanpur during Shah Jahan's stay at the place, was kept in one of the buildings built in Ahukhana for about six months. Later, the body was removed to Agra to be buried in Taj Mahal. Ahukhana has also a compound wall.

In the premises of the Badshahi Qila, the *Zenana* enclosure contains one of the best preserved relics and that is known as Zenana[3] Baths or *Hammams* of early Mughal Iranian style. The construction reflects the early Mughal style. The baths bear a contemporary inscription of Khan Khanan, Mirza Abdur Rahim Khan, the famous Minister of Akbar and Jahangir. There was a great deal of fresco painting in the groined ceilings some of which was renovated in crude manner in the early years of this Century. The rooms have domed roofs honey-combed in shape.

1. Report of the Archaeological Survey of India, 1924-25, pp. 34-35; and 1928-29, p. 26.
2. Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 218.
3. *Report of the Archaeological Survey of India, 1922-23, p. 47.*

Raja-ki-Chhatri is another notable mounnment which is situated on the bank of the Tapti river about 4 miles from Burhanpur where the river Mohana joins the former. It is said that the *Chhatri* was constructed by the order of Emperor Aurangzab in honour of the memory of Raja Jai Singh, the commander of the Mughal forces in Deccan. Raja Jai Singh while returning from the Deccan died at Burhanpur. He is said to have been cremated at the place, where the magnificent open-columned pavilion, seemingly of the Mughal period, stands.

With a view to supplying pure water, the Mughal rulers constructed eight systems of water works, which at different times, have supplied water to this populous city. These water works are specimen of unparalleled constructional technique and may be counted as the glorious relics of the Mughal engineering ingenuity and skill which entailed enormous expenditure. They were, probably, constructed for the most part in the reign of Shah Jahan and Auranzeb. The underground springs, flowing from Satpura hills towards the river Tapti have been intercepted at three places called Mul Bhandara, Sukha Bhandara and Chintaharan reservoirs situated about a few kilometres to the north of Burhanpur town beyond the railway lines, about 100 feet higher in level than the town. Of these eight sets of subterranean conduits, two in the form of channels were destroyed long ago. The other six consisted of a number of wells connected by a subterranean gallery and so arranged as to catch the percolation of water from the neighbouring hills towards the centre of the valley. When a sufficient supply had thus been obtained it was led through a masonry pipe to its destination in the city or its neighbourhood. One set, called the Mul Bhandara, supplied water to the place and the centre of the city, having a tunnelled course of about 13,000 feet with numerous air-shafts. The water was delivered into a large masonry reservoir, called the Jali Karanj, from where through earthen-ware and cut stone pipes, water was drained to the town in various *karanjas* and water-towers from where the public drew their supply. The Sukha Bhandara supply was originally meant for irrigating the *pan tandas* and other gardens of Lalbag or pleasure garden of the Mughal[1] governors. In 1880 its supply was also directed towards the town by 3 inches earthen-ware pipe line from Tirkhiti Karanj to Jali Karanj. In 1890 the aquaducts from Khuni Bhandara and Sukha Bhandara were abandoned and replaced by cast-iron pipe line. Of the remaining channels, three led to Bahadurpur, then a suburb of the city, and the sixth to a palace erected by Rao Ratan Hada. All these channels, where they run underground, are furnished at short intervals with tall hollow columns of masonry, rising to the level of the water at the source of the works. Since 1922, the management of this source of water supply has come to the Municipal Committee Burhanpur, established in 1867.

In the seventeenth and eighteenth Centuries thet own was plundered by the Marathas many times. *In A. D. 1716, the demands of the Marathas for the*

1. Contemporary English travellers had nothing but praise for this beautiful garden.

Chauth or one-fourth of the revenue of Deccan Subah were conceded and this put an end to repeated battles. In A. D. 1720, Asaf Nizam-ul-Mulk seized the Government of the Deccan and resided much at Burhanpur, where he died in 1748. He built a brick wall around the city in A. D. 1731. It was about 5½ miles in circumference and enclosed an area of over 2 sq. miles. It had numerous bastions with eight massive gates and twelve smaller windows. In the year 1760, Burhanpur was ceded by the Nizam to the Peshwa who transferred it to Sindhia in 1778. The town was to a large extent destroyed twice by terrible fire that broke out in A. D. 1897 and 1906.

According to the 1961 Census, the population of the town is 82,090 as against 70,066 in 1951 and 33,341 in 1901. It covers an area of over 4 sq. miles (11.37 kms). The town is also a growing one in respect of industries, trade and commerce. It has become a big market for cotton growers. This feature has resulted in the opening of a number of ginning and pressing factories since the year 1894 and a textile mill in 1908-09. Industries of power-loom and hand-loom weaving, bidi-manufacturing, and oil crushing have made the town an important industrial centre of the District. The town has been electrified in the year 1932. With the growth of industries, activities in the field of trade, commerce and banking have considerably increased.

There are a number of educational institutions imparting instructions from pre-primary to collegiate stage to both sexes. The town has a number of old and new libraries and reading-rooms. The town is connected by rail and road with most of the important places within and without the State. Regular bus services are running between these centres. A number of post and telegraph offices are situated in the important localities of the town. A telephone exchange has also been opened in the town. In order to provide medical facilities and carry on public health activities the Municipality, and State Medical and Public Health Department have started a number of dispensaries. Besides, there is also a big hospital in the town. The town is thus making rapid progress industrially, commercially and culturally. There are six cinema houses in the town. Burhanpur is the headquarters of the Tahsil, and Sub-Division of the same name. There is a P. W. D. rest house at Burhanpur on Burhanpur-Amrawati road.

Harsud *(21° 11'N and 76° 44'E)*

It is a township having a railway station on the main Bombay-Delhi line about 36 miles (60.8 kms.) from Khandwa by road. It is the headquarters of the Sub-Division and Tahsil of the same name. It is connected with Khandwa, Harda and Hoshangabad by a *pucka* road. The present name of the village seems to be a corrupt form of its old name Harshapura which is mentioned in an inscription found in the ruins of a temple in the village. The inscription[1] refers to Paramara King Devapala Deva (A.D. 1218) in whose reign a temple and the tank were constructed at the place.

1. The inscription is deposited in the cabinet of the American Oriental Society, New Haven U.S.A. (Hiralal, Inscriptions in C.P. and Berar p. 77).

It has four primary, a middle and two higher secondary schools for both boys and girls. It is the headquarters of the Community Development Office and Janapada Sabha. There is a dispensary, a police station house, a primary health centre, a post and telegraph office and public call office, sub-office of the State Bank of India, office of M.P. Electricity Board, etc. Weekly market is held on Sundays. The township is electrified and has a ginning and pressing factory and P.W.D. rest house. Harsud has Gram and Nyaya Panchayats. According to the Census of 1961, it has a population of 6,609 persons.

Ichhapur (*21° 5'N. and 76° 10'E.*)

Ichhapur is a large village in Burhanpur Tahsil on the Burhanpur-Edlabad main road, about 14 miles (22.4 kms.) from Burhanpur on the borders of Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra. The village is said to have been named after goddess Ichchhadevi (ful-filler of desires) to whom a temple on the nearby hill is dedicated. The story goes that a Maratha Governor made a vow to the goddess that if he got a son he would build a well and a temple for the goddess. When his desire was fulfilled, he built a well and a temple. The flight of steps was subsequently added to it by the Bhuskute family. An annual fair attended by about 10,000 persons is held there in *Chaitra* and lasts for two days. The village is electrified.

Ichhapur has one middle school and two primary schools (Marathi and Urdu), one higher secondary school, a branch post office, Gram and Nyaya Panchayats and a police station. A daily bus service plies between Burhanpur and Ichhapur. Population of the village according to the Census of 1961 is 4,235 as against 3,643 in 1951, and it now occupies 8,718 acres of land.

Jainabad (*21° 17'N and 76° 15'E*)

It is a large village of the Burhanpur tahsil, lying 1.6 kms. away from Burhanpur. Jainabad, formerly spelt as Zainabad, is said to have been founded by the Faruqi King, Nasir Khan (A.D. 1399-1437) on the other bank of the Tapti, opposite Burhanpur. It was so named in reverence to saint Zain-ud-din, Nasir's spiritual preceptor. The controversial story of the founding of this place has already been discussed in Chapter II.

Jainabad in all probability was a suburb of the then prosperous town of Burhanpur during the rule of the Mughals. Of the antiquarian remains, the village has the cenetoph of Nizam-ul-Mulk-Asaf Jah, the founder of the former Hyderabad (Deccan) State, though he was buried at Aurangabad. It is said that during the Mughal rule Jainabad received water from the river Utaoli through underground water channel. A story is current that says that during the rule of Sindhia over the Pargana Jainabad, the latter's elephant trampled the water channel where it runs underground near the river Utaoli, and that the water has never flowed in it since. The Jainabad Parganah passed under the British rule in 1860 A.D. Formerly, it had a paper making industry. In early years of the British rule, it was the headquarters of a *pargana*.

Jainabad has an extra departmental branch post-office. The village, according to the Census of 1961, is populated by 2,166 persons as against 1004 in 1901. Its area is 4,238 acres. There are junior basic school, Hindi, Urdu and Marathi primary schools. In this village a Gram Panchayat and a Nyaya Panchayat are working.

Khandwa *(21° 50′ N and 76° 22′ E)*

The headquarters of the District since 1864, it is a town of considerable antiquity. The local[1] belief that Khandwa is the corrupt form of *Khandava Van* of the *Mahabharat* does not seem to be correct. The geographical location of Khandava Van, according to the great Epic, was in the north.[2] Cunningham identified Khandwa with the Kognabanda of Ptolemy.[3] Khandwa is mentioned by Abu Rihan in the beginning of the 11th Century[4] A.D. It was also known to the Arabic Geographer, Al Beruni, who wrote in the beginning of the 11th Century.

In these early days Khandwa was a seat of Jain worship[5] and many finely carved pillars, cornices and other stone-work belonging to many Jain temples may be seen lying scattered and used in the more modern buildings. The Jain temple of Khandwa contains beautiful Jain images of the 12th and 13th Centuries A.D. Khandwa has many antiquarian remains which prove the antiquity of the town. Firishta mentions Khandwa as the seat of a local governor of the kingdom of Malwa[6] in A.D. 1516. The town is surrounded by four great tanks, remains of which still exhibit the former prosperity[7] and antiquity of the place.

The Padma[8] Kund, to the north-west of the town, is 90 feet square. Numerous pieces of old carvings are let into the stone embankments of this tank. "There are six short inscriptions on the roofs of some small niches which have almost certainly been taken from a temple". All of them are dated in Samvat 1185 or A.D. 1128. The inscriptions are all more or less in a mutilated condition. They recorded the names of different statues which must once have occupied the niches. About these Cunningham says 'I have suspicion that they must have belonged originally to a Jain temple'. Incidentally it is interesting to note that exactly the same date, i.e., Samvat 1185 Asadha Sudi 10, is inscribed on one of the statues of Adinath, the first Jain Tirthankara, now installed in the existing Jain temple of Khandwa. Close by is a small modern temple of Padmeshwara with an enshrined *lingam* and many small figures from some old temple.

1. Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 234-35.
2. A. Cunningham, Geography of Ancient India, p. 701.
3. Report of the Archaeological Survey of India, Vol. IX, p. 113.
4. Ibid.
5. Nimar Settlement Report, 1870, p. 18.
6. Ibid, p. 58.
7. Report of the Archaeological Survey of India, Vol IX, p. 113.
8. Ibid.

Still farther to the north-west there is a large tank now in ruins named Bhairava[1] Tal which was 600 feet square. To the south-west of the town there is Kilal Kund, measuring 50 feet square. The walls since long were broken. Near the railway iron bridge there is Bhim Kund and to the north-west lies the Suraja Kund. To the north of the town lies the Rameshwar[2] Kund and there is a group of three temples mostly built out of the ruins of old temples. One of them in the centre is built on *Hemadpanti* style without applying mortar. The pillars supporting the shrine are massive and beautifully carved and one can see some old cornices and finely carved stone-work belonging to a Jain temple. Here too again some pieces of old carvings are let into the stone embankment.

Since 1864, Khandwa became the headquarters of the newly formed Nimar District of the Central Provinces, being a centrical place on the railway. The place was also soon connected with Indore by railway. Khandwa, since then, has become the junction of both broad and metre gauge lines. From the year 1959 it is also connected with Hingoli by a newly constructed metre gauge line. By road, too, since early days it has been connected with the important markets within and without the State. This favourable location helped the place immensely in developing its banking, trade and commercial activities. It has become an important market for grain and cotton. A number of ginning and pressing factories, oil mills, saw mills, and other small scale industries developed in the town. Commercial banks opened their office in the town. All this has contributed to the growth of population of the place. According to the Census of 1961, the town has a population of 63,505 persons as against 19,401 in 1901. The town, unlike thickly populated Burhanpur, is sparsely populated, its area being 8.11 sq. miles (22.36 sq. kms.).

Being a district headquarters place a number of district offices of the State Government are located at Khandwa. It is also the headquarters of Khandwa Development Block. In the field of education the town has made a rapid progress during the period of about half a century. Apart from a number of primary and secondary schools for boys and girls the town has Multipurpose High School, Colleges for Arts, Science, Commerce and Law Faculties as well as Teachers' training college. Besides, there are industrial and technical schools and institutions also. The town has one well-equipped general hospital apart from one exclusively for women. Besides, a number of dispensaries run by the Municipality are in different wards of the town. There are also a number of private dispensaries. The town is electrified since 1924 and has three cinema houses. There is a circuit house, a rest house and a number of *dharmashalas* for the travellers. Piped water is supplied to the town from Mohghat reservoir and a number of wells. Municipality maintains a few public gardens. The town has a number of post offices, telegraph offices and public-call offices.

1. Ibid, p. 114.
2. Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 235.

There is also a telephone exchange centre. Recently, a Government-owned bus service has been introduced in the town. A few boarding and lodging houses are also there.

Koladit *(21° 45′ N and 76° 13′ E)*

Koladit is a village in the Tahsil of Khandwa. Its population in 1951 was 739 persons. The nearest main road to the village is Khandwa-Pandhana road. It is situated about 4 miles (6.4 kms) away from Pandhana and about 18 miles (28.8 kms.) from Khandwa. Buses are available at Khandwa for Pandhana from which place a bullock-cart can be engaged. Captain Forsyth referred to the remains of an old Jain temple, which is in dilapidated condition. The village has a primary school run by Janapada Sabha, Khandwa.

Mahalgurara *(21° 20′ N and 76° 26′ E)*

The village Mahalgurara of Burhanpur Tahsil is situated at a distance of 13 miles (20.8 kms.) from Burhanpur on the southern bank of the river Badi Utaoli flowing from a nearby hilly tract. Here, across the river, two dams at a distance of about 100 yards were constructed during the Muslim rule. When the river is in flood a small water-fall of about 12 feet height is formed. Two leisure pavillions on either bank of the river were also constructed by the Muslim rulers. These constructions increased the natural beauty of the place. The place which was formerly known as Karara soon became famous by the name Mahal-Gul-Ara as the royal families often retired there whenever they used to be in rejoicing mood. *Badshahnama* and *Shah-Jahan-nama* referred in glowing terms to the beauty of the place. The glory departed from the pleasure-place with the decline of Mughal power. It is now a protected monument. As stated earlier, about a mile above the dams, a masonry channel (now in ruins) carryied water to the Ahukhana or deer park, the pleasure-garden of the Mughals on the bank of the river Tapti opposite Burhanpur.

The village Mahalgurara has a primary school. Its population, according to the Census of 1961, is 740 and it covers an area of 874 acres. The nearest main road to the place is the Burhanpur-Amraoti Road. The place can be visited by approaching through motor car or tonga. The nearest railway station, post office and the police station are these at Burhanpur. The civil affairs of Mahalgurara are managed by a Gram Panchayat.

Mandhata *(22° 14′ N and 76° 0′ E)*

Considered to be one of the most sacred places of pilgrimage, Mandhata is a village in the Khandwa Tahsil. It is about 47 miles (75.2 kms.) north-west of Khandwa. Its nearest railway station is Omkareshwar-Road on metre gauge Western Railway, connecting Ajmer with Khandwa. The distance is 7 miles (11.2 kms.) from the station. Buses are available at the station. It is also connected by *pucka* roads with Khandwa, Indore, Maheshwar, Ujjain etc., and regular bus-services ply on these roads for the benefit of the travellers and pilgrims.

Close-up of Mughal Painting, Burhanpur

The village is situated partly on the south bank of the Narmada and partly on an island in the river. "The island[1] is roughly about a mile and half long and is composed of lofty hills, divided by a valley which runs from near the summit at the eastern end down to the water's edge at the western extremity. To the east the hills fall in precipitious cliffs for about 400 or 500 feet to the river below, while to the west they tail off gradually. The southern bank of the Narmada opposite Mandhata is equally precipitous" and between them the river forms deep and narrow channel. The rocks on both sides of the river are of beautiful sand-stone formations. The ruins of the village show that once the place was a considerable town. There is a controversy among scholars in regard to its identification with the celebrated ancient city of Mahishmati. Some scholars identify it with Mahishmati, while other scholars assert that Maheshwar is the ancient town of Mahishmati.[2]

The main temple at Mandhata which attracts thousands of pilgrims from all parts of the Country, is dedicated to Omkareshwara, and is situated on the northern side of the river Narmada on the island. The temple contains a *lingam* to which Mandhata owes its celebrity. The great colums of the temple are old and belong to an earlier structure and the present temple, therefore, is of no great antiquity. Curiously enough the *lingam* is not placed as usual either in line with the front door of the temple or under the spire or pinnacle of the temple. This arrangement which is not found elsewhere cannot be explained. The *lingam* cell actually is to the one side and it is not seen except from the remote inner end of the hall. It seems that under the spire in the sanctum there was some original deity which was probably covered by a wall, subsequently erected to hide it for reasons not known. The *lingam* is held to be the most sacred one, being one of the twelve *jyotirlingams* of the Country. There is a cell around the *lingam*, filled with water. Whatever may be the quantity of watea poured into it, the water level would always remain constant. Occasionally air bubbles come to the surface to signify the deity's satisfaction with the pilgrims' offerings. Barren women desiring children often imprint Swastik mark on the walls of this four--storeyed temple and tie a string round the image of a goodess inside, as a token of a vow.

The Bhilala Raos of Mandhata, hereditary custodians of the great shrine of Shiva at Mandhata, have preserved traditions of the family, according to which their ancestor Bharat Singh was a Chauhan Rajput, who took Mandhata from Nathu Bhil in A.D. 1165. Bharat Singh probably married Nathu Bhil's daughter and founded a Bhilala family. He also restored the worship of Shiva to the island which was inaccessible.

At the top of the hill and above the famous temple of Omkareshwara is situated a temple said to be dedicated to Siddheswara.[3] The scholars assume

1. Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 239.
2. H.D. Sankalia, Excavations at Maheshwar and Navdatoli, pp. 1-15.
3. Nimar District Gazetteer, p. 241.

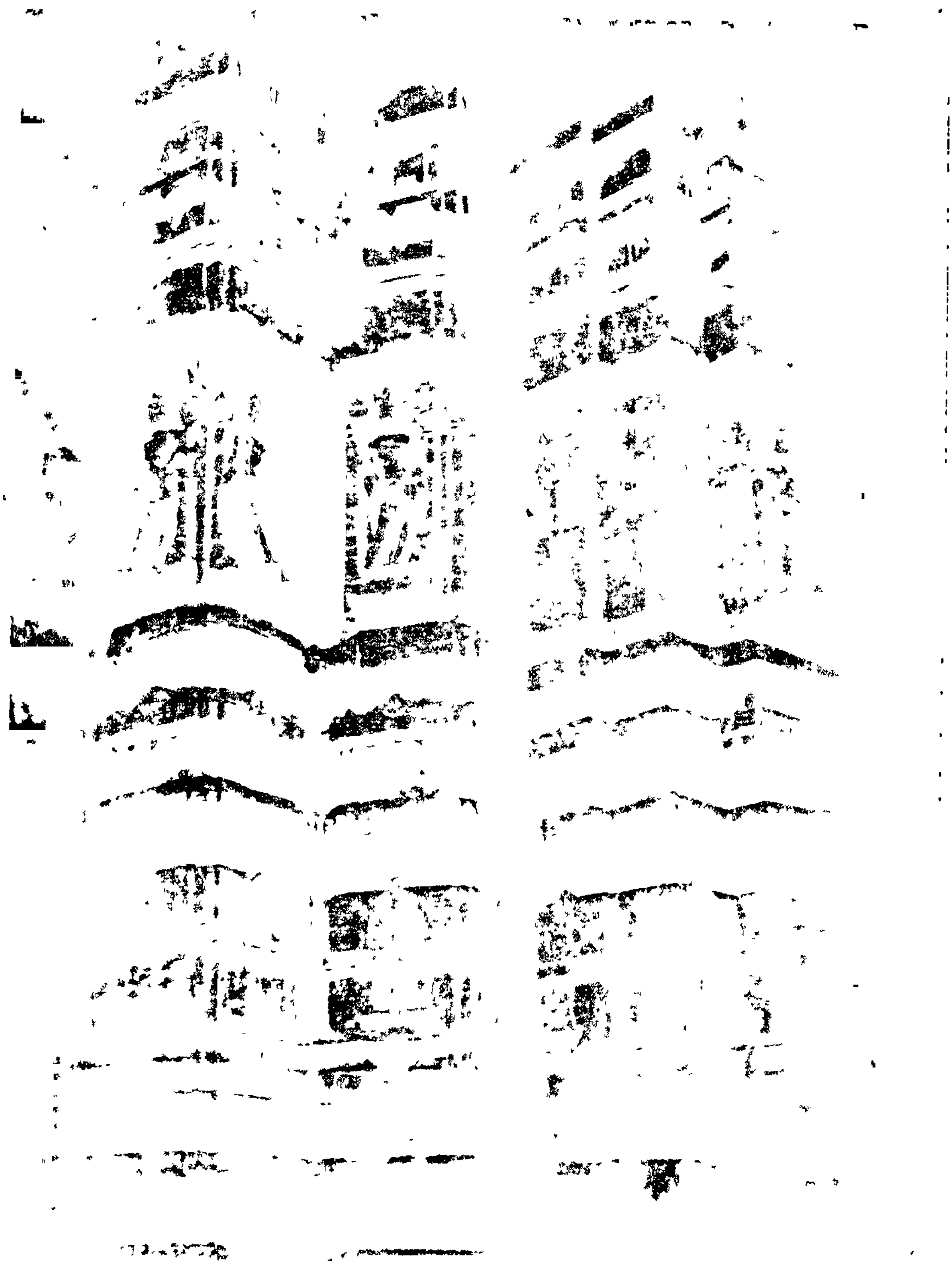
that the temple was probably left unfinished, but was intended to be a very fine building. As it stands, it consists of the square sanctum with a doorway in each of its four sides, its walls having been carried up almost to the springing of the spire. It appears that the spire was not completed, though many dressed stones lie about prepared for it. In later times, the temple was partially completed by adding to it an unsightly dome in Muhammadan fashion, which was later removed by the Government and covered with a flat roof designed to be more in keeping with the old work. The temple is standing upon the high platform, sides of which are carved with elephants in various positions of relief. These are four or five feet high and have been executed with singular correctness and excellence of posture. Many of these carved slabs disappeared from their original places while the remaining were mutilated long ago. The central shrine had an entrance on each side with a porch resting on 18 pillars. These are 14 feet high to the architrave and are elaborately carved. But here again, the work appears to have been left unfinished, the architraves alone lying across the tops of the columns. The whole building has been built of heavy blocks of stone put together without mortar or with little or no bonding.

To the north of the island stands a temple called that of Gauri[1]-Somnath. It was long ago rebuilt with lime. The plan is starshaped, formed by the corners of superimposed squares. The temple contains a gigantic *lingam* of smooth black stone, while a *nandi* or bull of similar stone is outside. According to a local legend once the colour of the *lingam* was white. Any one who looked into it intently could see a reflection representing the form which he is to take in his next birth. Once Aurangzeb visited the temple and saw the figure of a pig after gazing into the *lingam*. Violently angry with this manifestation, he threw the *lingam* into fire. Since then it took a jet—black colour. The temple is allegd to have been built by the first king of Mandhata. At the western end of the island is situated a shrine of Rina-Mukteswar which is not very old. Besides, there are a number of old temples most of which are in ruins. There are also remains of fortifications on the island, of which two gateways with watch-towers are adorned with carvings of Maha Kali and Bhairava.

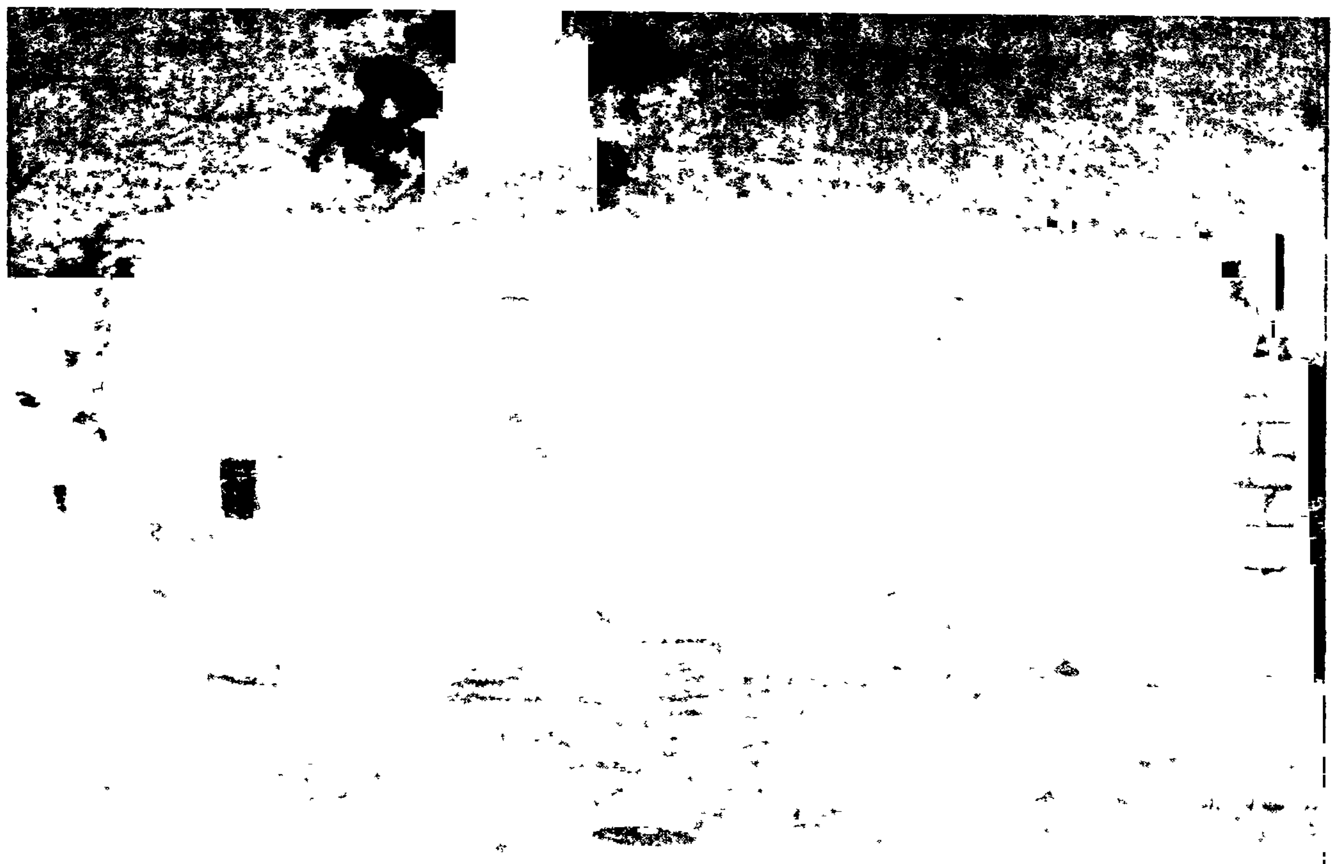
The general appearance of the Mandhata island is very picturesque. The rows of houses, shops, temples and newly built *dharmashala* standing on terraces carved out of the sides of the hills, with the palace of the former Rajas conspicuous by above, these offer a panorama pleasing the eyes of the visitors. Some little way above the island a small river, Kaveri, joins the Narmada on the southern side and the popular belief is that its waters do not mix with those of the Narmada, but flow across them and round the north side of the island, the Narmada continuing to the south. On the southern bank of the river or to the south of the island beyond Narmada, are situated some temples. The important of them is that of Amareshwara. The temple contains four inscriptions on the walls of the portico dated in 1063 A.D.

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1. Ibid, p. 242.



Omkareshwar Temple Sculpture—North-East View



Chaubis Avataras Temple, Mandhata

Near the Amareshwara temple stands that of Vriddheshwara, the entr.nce of which is built of finely carved stones. Besides, some temples are there, built in later period with the materials of some old temples, remains of which can be seen scatterred over the place. On both the banks pucka ghats are built of stones. Partly the village is situated on this side and has a post-office, police-station and a primary school. A foundation stone of a bridge connecting southern part of the village with the island was laid a few years back.

On the northern bank of the other stream of the Narmada remains of some Vaishnavite and Jain temples are traced. The main Vaishnava[1] temple is one dedicated to *Chauvisa Avataras*, or twenty-four incarnations of Vishnu. The images of *Avataras* are carved in black stones but they are in a mutilated condition. The temple is also in a ruined condition. There are also ruins of old Jain temples. Reconstructed old Jain temples are found on another hill near this now called Siddhawarkut hill in Panthia village. Between the Vaishnava and the Jain temples is a stream, new locally called the Ravananala after a gigantic statue 18 feet long and ten-armed lying near the nallah. The statue, in fact, is of Mahakali the consort of Shiva. She has a girdle and necklace of snakes and holds a sword, mace and skull in her hands. Her stomach is empty to signify her unslaked longing for human victims and has a scorpion carved on it.

At the south-east end of the island is the cliff from which the devotees of Bhairava were formerly accustomed to hurl themselves on the rock below. Local tradition was that Bhairava and his consort Kali were accustomed to feed on human flesh. But some times in the later half of the 12th Century a worshipper, Daryao Nath, by virtue of his austerities is said to have shut up Kali in a subterranean cavern and thus removed the fear of pilgrims who abstained from visiting the island. The tradition goes that he also arranged with Bhairava that for the furture he should receive human sacrifices at regular intervals and should, therefore, refrain from molesting pilgrims. Accordingly, on the occasion of the annual fair some of his devotees hurled themselves on the rocks in fulfilment of the promise of Daryao Nath. Perhaps the last sacrifice of this kind was witnessed by an English Officer in A.D. 1824.[2]

The village of Mandhata is wholly dependent on the earning from the pilgrims. The annual fair is held twice there ; once in the bright fortnight of Kartik and lasts for 7 days, and again on the occasion of Shivaratri for 5 days. On both the occasions the place is visited by thousands of pilgrims. On the southern bank it has a number of *dharmashalas*. Four inscribed plates, respectively of Jayasimhadeva (A. D. 1055-60), Devapaladeva (C. 1218-32 A. D.) and Jayavarman II (C. 1255-75 A. D.) all the three Parmara kings of Dhara or Malwa were found at Mandhata and they are referred to in Chapter II.

1. Ibid, pp. 240-41.
2. The sordid details of that human sacrifice left behind by the Officer, were found by Captain Forsyth among the Nimar records, and are quoted by the latter in his book, the Highlands of Central India, on p. 181.

Mandhata is now a small village with a population of 590 in 1961 as against 900 in 1901. It covers an area of 658 acres together with an area of 1884 acres of Godarpura. The village is electrified and has a Gram Panchayat. Weekly market is held on Wednesdays. There is a police station, a branch post office, a dispensary, sub-centre of a primary health centre at Mundi, and two primary and one middle schools and a *gurukul* for boys.

Mundi *(22° 5′ N and 76° 30′ E)*

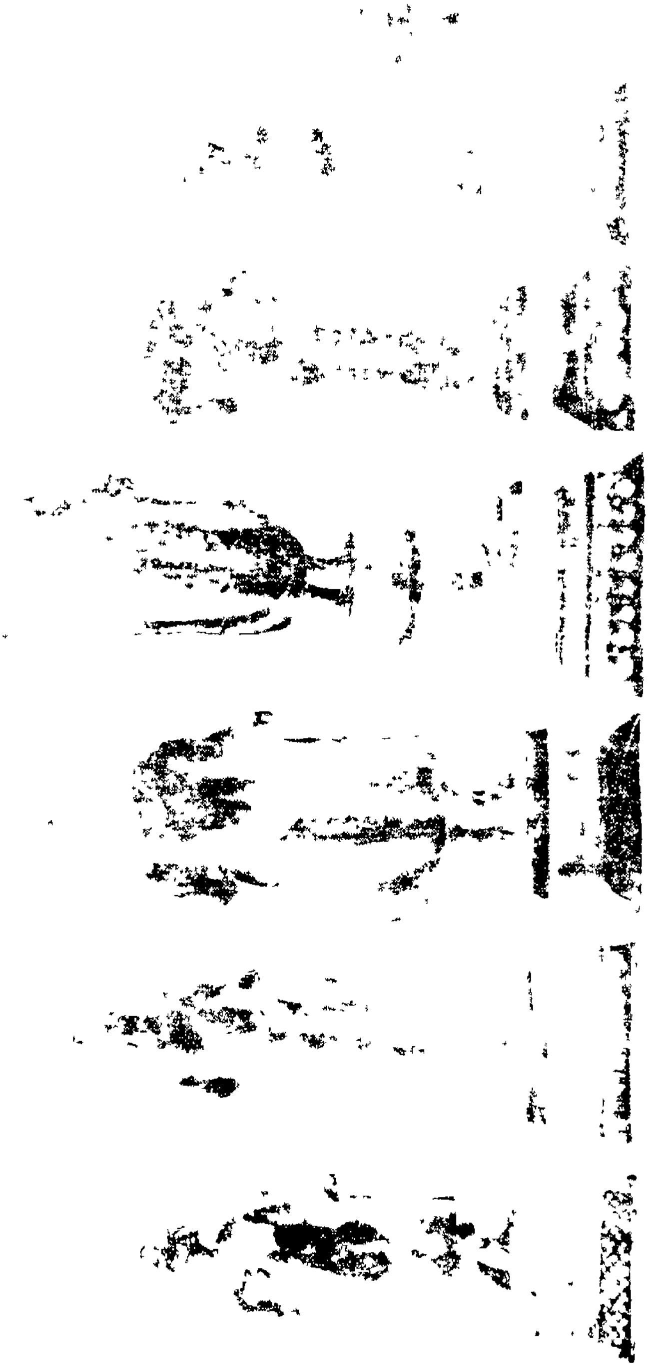
This large village of Khandwa Tahsil is situated on the Khandwa-Mundi Road, 22 miles (38.2 kms.) away from Khandwa. The nearest railway station to the place is Bir on the Bombay-Delhi main-line of the Central Railway. It is 3 miles (4.8 kms.) away from the station. Buses are available at Khandwa and Bir for Mundi. A religious fair, attended by about 15,000 persons is annually held in the name of Ranuka Mata in the month of December lasting for about a week. The place is a Revenue Inspector's headquarters and has a sub-post office, a police station, a primary health centre, a family planning clinic and veterinary hospital. A Gram and a Nyaya panchayats are there. There are 1 primary, 2 middle and 1 higher secondary schools. A weekly market is held on every Thursday. The place has a population of 4, 814 persons and an area of 4,332 acres.

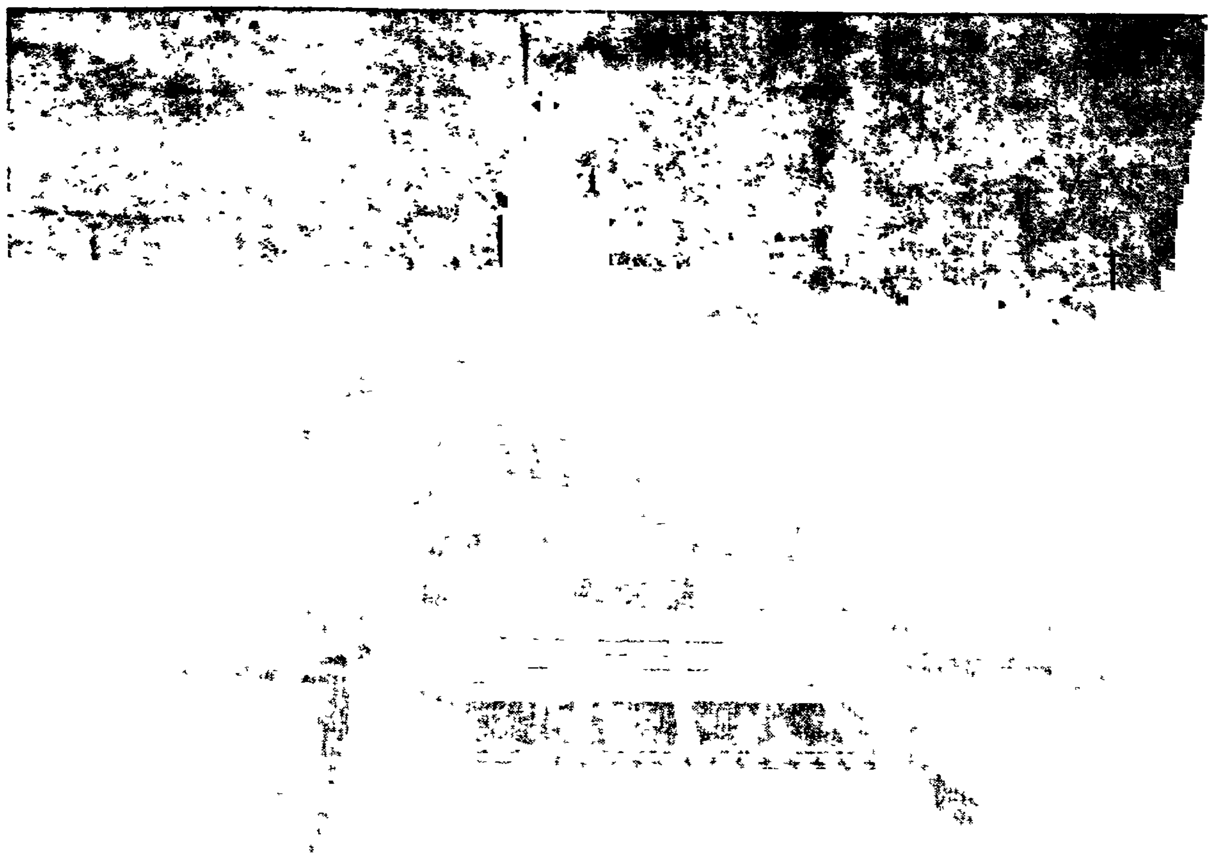
Nepa Nagar *(21° 26′ N and 76° 25′ E)*

Foundation of this newly constructed beautiful factory township of Burhanpur Tahsil was laid with the establishment of India's first newsprint mill, The National Newsprint and Paper Mills-after which the township is named as Nepanagar. It is connected with Khandwa and Burhanpur and is a railway station on the Bombay-Delhi main line of the Central Railway. By road, it is about 22 miles (35.2 kms.) from Burhanpur. The main road of Burhanpur-Khandwa is joined before Asir hill by the Asir-Chandni branch road. Nepanagar is connected with Chandni by another branch road. A regular bus service plies between Burhanpur and Nepanagar. The origin and growth of the paper industry here have already been described in Chapter V. The town is gradually developing, keeping pace with the development of paper industry. Its population, was 8, 780 persons in 1961. This modern township, which is electrified, has a dispensary, thermal power station, combined post and telegraph office, public call-office, Hindi and Marathi primary schools and a higher secondary school. A weekly market is held on Sundays. It is situated in hilly and forest region. It is also the headquarters of Nepa Division of forest ranges. The town covers an area of 0.36 sq. miles (0.93 sq. kms.).

Pandhana *(20° 41′ N and 76° 14′ E)*

This large village in Khandwa Tahsil lies at a distance of 12 miles (19.2 kms.) to the south of Khandwa. Both places are connected by *pucka* road and buses ply on the road. A large weekly market is held on every Tuesday. Four ginning factories and one log saw-factory are there. This village has Gram and Nyaya





Siddhawarkut, Mandhata

panchayats, a police station, sub-post office, Block Development Office, a primary health centre, a dispensary, Revenue Inspector's office, three primary, one middle and one higher secondary schools. According to the Census of 1961, its population is 4, 753 persons and its area is 2, 155 acres and 46 abadi acres.

Punasa (*22° 14′ N and 76° 25′E*)

The village Punasa of the Khandwa Tahsil is about 38 miles (61.16 kms.) from Khandwa. It can be approached from two stations on Bombay-Delhi main-line of the Central Railway. From both the stations, *viz.*, Khandwa and Bir, regular buses are available. The area where the village stands was covered with forest during the early occupation by the British. The village exhibits ruins and remains of early habitation, attesting to its former importance. The whole tract around the place became almost entirely desolate on account of the Pindari raids at the beginning of the 19th Century. Measures were adopted during the years 1846-54 to rehabilitate the regions by clearing up forest.

The village contains a large stone fort, built in 1730 A. D. The fort during the days of Great Revolt of 1857 offered refuge to the Europeans who fled from Mandleshwar, then the capital of Nimar Agency. The fort is in a dilapidated condition.

Punasa was the headquarters of the District and *Pargana* of the same name. Later in the Central Provinces it was a tahsil headquarters for some years. Iron-ore exists in the vicinity and was worked for some years near the village. Prisoners were in the beginning employed for the manufactury established. About six miles north of Punasa is a waterfall of the Narmada about 50 feet high, known as the Dharakshetra. In the vicinity there is also a deposit of dolomite or carbonate of lime and magnesia.

Punasa has a Gram panchayat, a Nyaya-panchayat, a branch post-office, two primary schools, a middle school, a higher secondary school, a dispensary and a sub-centre of primary health centre. Nimari breed of cattle are since long bred in the adjoining forests. It is the headquarters of the Community Development Block and of the Punasa Forest Range Officer. According to the Census of 1961, its population is 1, 341 and its area is 1, 947 acres.

Siddhawarkut (*22° 15′ N and 76° 10′ E*)

A place of pilgrimage of considerable antiquity, Siddhawarkut is situated on the mountain peak near Panthia village to the north-east of Mandhata island on the bank of the river Kaveri, a bifurcated stream of the Narmada. The Jains all over India, from time immemorial, held this place as one of the *Siddhakshetras* or place where one attains salvation. From Mandhata pilgrims have to engage a ferry for reaching Siddhawarkut for a distance of about one mile (1.6 kms). The direct way to the place is from Barwah, a railway station

on metre-gauge of Western Railway, connecting Ajmer-Indore-Khandwa. The place is about 14 miles (22.4 kms.) by a fair weather motorable road from Barah.

Till the year 1883 the old temples of the place were in ruins. Attempts to restore and reconstruct them were started by the Digamber Jain community of Nimar and Malwa since that year. At present, there are eight such temples bearing somewhat new appearance and containing old images found at the place. The oldest of the images bear the dates ranging from the 13th to 15th century. Tirthankar Chandra Prabhu's image has on its pedestal an inscription of A.D. 1222. Besides, a *Manastambha*-a four-faced small temple on a high white marble pillar and a *Chhatri* are there. The temples are of black basalt and red granite. The walls of the temples are decorated with modern paintings. The earliest reference to the place is found in an ancient Jain literary work in Prakrit, *Nivvui Kandani*, which describes exact geographical locations of the Jain holy places and gives reasons for their sanctity.

An annual fair is held on the 14th and 15th of bright fortnight of the Falguna. There are *dharamashalas* providing all facilities to the visitors. The whole area is electrified and has a piped water supply from a well. The cluster of temples pleases the eye of visitors with their lofty pinacles. There is a primary school. About one mile away from the present day Siddhawarkut there is a beautiful stone-built tank now in disuse and ruins.

Shahpur *(21° 14' N and 76° 14' E)*

This large village in the District lies 7 miles (11.2 kms.) from Burhanpur. Buses regularly ply on the road connecting both the places. A Bhawani Mata fair attended annually by 7,000 persons is held here for two days. The village is covered by the Development Block of the same name, headquarters of which is at Burhanpur. The place is situated in the most fertile tract of the District. A combined post and telegraph office, a primary health centre, a family planning clinic, a leprosy clinic, a police station, two primary, two middle and one higher secondary school, a cinema theatre, a veterinary hospital, co-operative society, a leather-tanning centre, etc., are located there. A Gram and Nyaya panchayats, are also functioning. The Jain temple of the village contains many old Jain images of 15th Century. The place is electrified. According to the Census of 1961, its population is 6,958 persons as against 4,345 in 1901. The village covers an area of 7,349 acres.

Singaji *(22° 02' N and 76° 39' E)*

The place has become a centre of religious attachment probably since the last quarter of the 16th Century A.D. by canonization of a popular saint by name Singaji, and after whom the place has become known. It was recorded by his chief disciple that by several miraculous appearances and other supernatural circumstances the saint Singaji, a gavali (herdsman) by caste had acquired a

deified character for himself after death. Posthumously, he became the object of wide popular devotion, especially amongst the gavalis of this District, and other surrounding regions.

Their devotion is chiefly exhibited on the occasion of a *mela* or fair held annually at his *Samadhi* elevated on the banks of a small river Piprar on the 5th of Asvina. The fair lasts for ten days and is attended by thousands of devotees. Gur and ghee are offered to Singaji by his devotees assembled there from far and near places. The chief feature and attraction of the fair has been the cattle-fair. Thousands of cattle of good and ordinary breed are brought there for sale and the transaction is brisk. All sorts of other merchandise are also sold in those days in abundant quantity.

The name of the village in revenue papers is Piplia-Singaji. It is in Harsud Tahsil and is about 28 miles (44.8 kms.) north-east of Khandwa and 10 miles (16 kms.) from Harsud. It is a railway station on Bombay-Delhi main-line of the Central Railway. The village has a primary school and its population in 1961 was only 97 as against 26 in 1901. It occupies an area of 149 acres.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX—A

(Statistical Tables)

APPENDIX—B

TABLE—I

Normals and Extremes of Rainfall

Station	No. of years of data*		Jan.	Feb.	Mar	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.
1	2		3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Khandwa	50	a	8.6	5.6	4.8	2.0	8.1	135 4	267.5	166.4	147.3
		b	0.7	0 6	0.6	0.3	0.7	6.5	12.7	10.2	7.4
Burhanpur	50	a	9.7	6.1	3.5	1.5	8.9	148.8	231.9	162.1	185.4
		b	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.8	6 8	11.5	10 0	8.4
Harsud	50	a	9.9	5.3	5.3	1.3	9.1	136.9	338.6	235.7	179.1
		b	0 9	0 5	0.5	0.2	0 7	6 6	13 0	11 8	7.8
Khandwa	45	a	7 1	4 1	2.3	1.0	11 2	131 8	292.3	222.3	162.8
		b	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.8	6.1	13.2	11.0	7.0
East Nimar (District)		a	8.8	5 3	4.0	1.5	9.3	138 2	282.6	196.6	168.6
		b	0.7	0 5	0.5	0 2	0.7	6.5	12 6	10.7	7.7

Contd........

Station	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual	Highest annual rainfall as % of normal & years**	Lowest annual rainfall as % of normal & years**	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours: Amount mm.	Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours: Date
1	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Khandwa	38.3	27.2	7.4	818.6	185 (1944)	42 (1916)	240.5	July 1927, 13
	1.8	1.2	0.6	43.3				
Burhanpur	32 3	22 9	10.9	824.1	159 (1949)	52 (1918)	259.1	Sept. 1894,12
	1.9	1.1	0.7	43.0				
Harsud	34.3	23.9	7.9	987.3	207 (1944)	49 (1918)	228.3	July 1905, 8
	1.8	0.9	0.5	45.2				
Khandwa .. .	30.7	18.0	6.3	889.9	172 (1928)	42 (1908)	254.8	July 1913, 27
	1.6	1.0	0.4	42.0				
East Nimar (District) ..	33.9	23.0	8.1	880.0	165 (1944)	50 (1918)		
	1.8	1.1	0.5	43.5				

(a) Normal rainfall in mm. (b) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 2.5 mm. or more).

* Based on data upto 1957. ** Years given in brackets.

—Concluded.

TABLE II
Frequency of Annual Rainfall (Data 1901-1950)

Range in mm.	No. of years	Range in mm.	No. of years
401—500	3	1001—1100	5
501—600	5	1101—1200	6
601—700	4	1201—1300	2
701—800	9	1301—1400	0
801—900	5	1401—1500	1
901—1000	10	1501—1600	0

TABLE III
Mean Wind Speed

(In Km/hr.)

Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual
4.5	5 6	6.6	8.6	13.0	13 4	12 1	11.1	8.2	4.3	3.7	3.7	7.9

TABLE IV
Special Weather Phenomena

Mean No. of days with	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual
Thunder	0.4	0.9	0 9	0.8	1.3	4.7	2.0	0 8	1.9	1.1	0.2	0.1	14.8
Hail	0	0.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.1
Dust-Storm	0	0	0.4	0.1	0.7	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.9
Frost	0	0.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.1	1.0	1.4
Squale	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

TABLE V

Normals of Temperature and Relative Humidity

Month	Mean daily maxium tempe-rature	Mean daily Highest tempera-ture	Highest Maximum ever recorded		Lowest minimum ever recorded		Relative Humdity* 0830	1730
	°C	°C	°C	Date	°C	Date	%	%
January	29.2	11.6	35.6	1932, Jan 31	1.7	1946, Jan 7	57	32
February	31.5	13.3	38.9	1953, Feb. 28	0.6	1929, Feb. 1	45	23
March	36.3	18.1	43.3	1892, Mar. 28	6.1	1898, Mar. 4	33	15
April	40.2	23.8	46.7	1958, Apr. 25	11.1	1905, Apr. 2	28	14
May	41.7	27.4	47.2	1947, May 22	17.2	1881, May 3	40	18
June	37.2	26.1	45.6	1942, June 1	18.9	1957, June 26	65	45
July	31.0	24.0	40.0	1900, July 2	20.0	1941, July 12	81	73
August	29.9	23.3	39.4	1951, Aug. 29	19.4	1943, Aug. 23	83	72
September	31.2	22.7	40.6	1899, Sep. 12	17.8	1942, Sep. 28	81	67
October	33.6	18.9	40.6	1899, Oct. 6	9.4	1890, Oct. 31	62	39
November	31.0	13.6	37.2	1951, Nov. 1	6.1	1939, Nov. 25	58	32
December	29.0	10.9	34.4	1896, Dec. 1	2.8	1929, Dec. 29	60	31
Annual	33.5	19.5					58	38

*Hours I.S.T.

TABLE VI

Land Utilization Statistics

(In Thousand Acres)

Year	Area According to Village Papers	Area Under Forests	Area not Available for Cultivation: Land Put to non-Agricultural Uses	Area not Available for Cultivation: Barren and Uncultivable Land	Area not Available for Cultivation: Total	Other Uncultivated Land Excluding Current Fallows: Permanent Pastures and Other Grazing Lands	Other Uncultivated Land Excluding Current Fallows: Miscellaneous Tree Crops & Groves not Included in Net Area Sown	Other Uncultivated Land Excluding Current Fallows: Cultivable Waste	Other Uncultivated Land Excluding Current Fallows: Total (Includes Old Fallows)	Area Under Fallow Lands: Current Fallows	Area Under Fallow Lands: Other Fallows	Area Under Fallow Lands: Total	Net Area Sown	Area Cropped More than Once	Gross Cropped Area
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1909-10	2,827	1,248	—	—	152	..	—	—	555	—	..	80	792.4	18.4	810.8
1910-11	2,871	1,248	..	—	167	—	—	—	582	—	..	72	802.5	22.0	824.5
1911-12	2,871	1,248	—	—	166	—	—	—	565	..	..	59	833.7	9.1	842.8
1912-13	2,703	1,079	..	..	169	—	..	—	530	—	..	44	879 9	13.3	893.2
1913-14	2.703	1,079	..	..	170	—	—	—	511	—	..	48	894.5	13.6	908.1
1914-15	2,703	1,079	..	..	169	—	..	..	501	—	—	50	903.4	19.3	922.6
1915-16	2,703	1,079	..	..	169	—	..	..	496	—	..	52	907.3	22 6	929.9
1916-17	2,703	1,079	..	..	169	..	..	..	492	..	..	66	897.2	21.7	918.9
1917-18	2,703	1,079	..	..	168	..	..	..	495	..	..	106	854.5	25.1	879.6
1918-19	2,702	1,079	..	..	168	..	..	..	510	..	..	121	824.7	7.9	832.6

Contd........

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1919-20	2,703	1,079	..	..	168	..	..	..	525	..	..	94	835.6	18.0	853.6
1920-21	2,703	1,079	..	..	168	..	..	..	545	..	..	90	820.5	10.3	830.8
1921-22	2,703	1,079	..	..	168	..	..	..	552	..	..	76	827.6	21.4	849.0
1922-23	2,703	1,079	..	..	168	..	..	..	546	..	..	61	848.0	18.0	866.0
1923-24	2,703	1,079	..	..	168	..	..	..	528	..	..	57	870.3	13.7	884.0
1924-25	2,690	1,066	..	..	168	..	..	..	504	..	..	41	911.8	15.4	927.2
1925-26	2,690	1,066	..	..	167	..	..	..	486	..	..	39	932.0	13.6	945.6
1926-27	2,703	1,079	..	..	167	.	..	..	470	..	..	36	951.7	12.2	963.9
1927-28	2,703	1,079	..	..	166	..	..	..	464	..	..	41	952.4	20.8	973.2
1928-29	2,703	1,079	..	..	166	..	..	..	452	..	..	44	962.1	20.6	982.7
1929-30	2,703	1,072	..	..	166	..	..	..	448	..	..	53	957.2	11.7	968.9
1930-31	2,703	1,079	..	..	166	..	..	..	446	..	..	48	964.3	14.9	979.2
1931-32	2,703	1,079	..	..	166	..	..	..	444	..	..	56	958.3	25.1	983.4
1932-33	2,702	1,079	..	..	165	..	..	..	448	..	..	68	942.4	25.2	967.6

Contd........

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1933-34	2,703	1,078	..	..	165	..	..	..	442	..	..	64	953.3	25.0	978.3
1934-35	2,703	1,079	..	..	165	..	..	..	442	.	..	64	952.3	27.5	979.8
1935-36	2,703	1,079	..	..	165	..	..	..	450	.	.	75	933.5	28.3	961.8
1936-37	2,703	1,078	..	..	165	..	..	..	452	.	..	76	930.3	26.0	956.3
1937-38	2,703	1,078	..	..	165	..	..	..	460	..	..	76	922.9	26.1	949.0
1938-39	2,701	1,077	..	..	165	..	..	..	468	..	..	79	911.8	25.7	937.5
1939-40	2,700	1.077	.	..	165	..	..	..	473	..	..	74	912.2	17.9	930.1
1940-41	2,700	1,077	..	..	164	..	..	..	470	..	..	59	931.0	25.6	956.6
1941-42	2,700	1,076	..	..	164	..	..	..	464	..	..	48	947.9	13 6	961.5
1942-43	2,700	1,076	..	..	164	..	..	..	464	..	..	48	946.9	20.8	967.7
1943-44	2,696	1,073	..	..	164	..	..	..	460	..	..	50	950.2	30.3	980.5
1944-45	2,700	1,076	..	..	163	..	..	..	461	..	..	69	931.3	38.7	970.0
1945-46	2,700	1,076	..	..	163	..	..	..	461	..	..	83	918.1	30.1	948.2
1946-47	2,700	1,076	..	..	163	..	..	..	467	..	..	101	893.6	33.6	927.2
1947-48	2,700 4	1,076.3	..	..	162.8	..	..	..	475.7	..	..	93.6	892.0	24.0	916.0

Contd........

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1948-49	2,700.4	1,076.3	..	..	162.7	.	.	..	479.5	..	..	84.3	897.6	32.9	930.5
1949-50	2,640.5	1,065.1	..	..	152.9	.	.	..	475.9	..	..	78.7	867.9	36.6	904.5
1950-51	2,640 5	1,065.1	.	..	152.4	.	.	..	474.0	..	..	68.2	880.8	19.0	899.8
1951-52	2,040 5	1,164.5	..	..	152.4	..	..	..	363.7	..	..	47.5	912.4	19.1	931.5
1952-53	2,640.5	1,164.5		..	152.4	.	..	..	349.4	.	..	36.1	938.1	11.5	949.6
1953-54	2,640.5	1,153.5	111.8	54.0	165.8	257.7	23.9	77.7	359.3	8.8	22.6	31.4	930.5	18.8	949.3
1954-55	2,640.5	1,148.3	116.2	49.2	165 4	248 2	35.5	73.3	357.0	15.0	20.3	35.3	934.5	25.2	959.7
1955-56	2,640.5	1,147.7	116.7	45.9	162 6	258.6	30.0	59.3	347.9	22.9	21.5	44.4	937.9	31.2	969.1
1956-57	2,640.5	1,148.2	116.5	39 8	156.3	263 0	28.8	54.3	346.1	24.5	26.3	50.8	939.1	38.9	978.0
1957-58	2,640.5	1,146.3	117.0	38.3	155.3	269.9	26.2	44.9	341.0	19.5	28.7	48.2	949.7	19.5	969.2
1958-59	2,640.5	1,144.0	116 1	37.6	153.7	272.9	23.8	36.6	333.3	16.1	27.1	43.2	966.3	32.7	999.0
1959-60	2 640.5	1,147.8	114.8	36.3	151.1	277.8	22.1	21.9	321 8	22.1	26.8	48.9	970.0	41.3	1012.2
1960-61	2,640.5	1,148.1	116.7	31 6	148.3	281.9	20 2	19.7	321.8	17.9	27.1	45.0	977.3	33.3	1010.6
1961-62	2,639.3	1,143.9	114.7	32.8	147.5	283.7	18.5	16.2	318.4	14.3	25.3	39.6	989.9	32.3	1022.2
1962-63	2,642 1	1,141.2	119.4	30.9	150.3	285.7	17.7	13.8	317.2	14.8	22.8	37.6	995.8	34.5	1030.3
1963-64	2,642.3	1,161.5	118.4	30.5	148.9	275.4	12.9	12.5	300.8	13.2	16.8	30.0	1001.1	39.0	1040.1

........Concluded.

TABLE VII

Land Utilization Statistics—Tahsil-wise (1961-62)

(In Acres)

Tahsil	Profes-sional Survey	Village Papers reporting Area	Forests	Land put to Non-Agricu-ltural uses	Barren and Uncultivable Land	Total	Permanent Pastures & Other graz-ing Lands	Land under misc, trees crops and groves not included in net area sown.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Khandwa		7,53,183	25,481	52,280	14,338	66,618	1,36,487	5,219
Harsud		4,60,849	31,526	29,008	9,573	38,581	1,08,705	8,161
Burhanpur		3,61,474	23,142	33,400	8,888	42,288	38,501	5,109
Total	26,44,378	15,75,506 G. R. F. 10,63,763	80,149	114,688	32,799	1,47,487	2,83,693	18,489

Contd........

Tahsil	Cultivable waste	Total	Fallow-lands other than current fallows	Current fallows	Total	Net Area sown	Total cropped Area	Area sown more than once
1	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Khandwa	7,257	1,48,963	11,209	5,558	16,767	4,95,355	5,16,107	20,752
Harsud	6,157	1,23,023	10,576	6,134	16,710	2,54,422	2,61,619	7,197
Burhanpur	2,743	46,3 53	3,547	2,605	6,152	2,40,125	2,44,449	4,324
Total	16,157	3,18,339	25,332	14,297	39,629	9,89,902	10,22,175	32,273

——Concluded.

TABLE VIII
Area Irrigated : Sources of Water Supply

(In Thousand Acres)

Year	By Canals and Tanks	By Wells	By Other Sources	Total Area Irrigated
1	2	3	4	5
1909-10 ..	.. £	13.5	0.4	14.0
1910-11 ..	.. 0.1	11.3	0.4	11.8
1911-12 ..	.. 0.1	6.1	0.1	6.4
1912-13 ..	.. £	6.2	0.1	6.3
1913-14 ..	.. 0.1	9.9	0.3	10.3
1914-15 ..	.. 0.2	12.3	0.8	13.3
1915-16 ..	.. 0.2	15.1	0.5	15.7
1916-17 ..	.. 0.1	10.7	0.6	11.5
1917-18 ..	.. 0.1	10.8	0.7	11.6
1918-19 ..	.. £	10.3	0.2	10.5
1919-20 ..	.. £	9.6	0.2	9.8
1920-21 ..	.. 0.1	9.8	0.3	10.2
1921-22 .	.. 0.1	12.8	0.5	13.4
1922-23 .	. £	11.4	0.4	11.8
1923-24 .	.. £	8.8	0.4	9.2
1924-25 ..	.. 0.1	6.9	0.3	7.3
1925-26 ..	.. 0.1	8.3	0.3	8.7
1926-27 ..	.. £	9.7	0.4	10.1
1927-28 .	. 0.1	11.2	0.2	11.5
1928-29	.. 0.1	9.2	0.3	9.5
1929-30 .	.. 0.1	8.6	0.3	8.9
1930-31 .	.. 0.2	10.4	0.2	10.8
1931-32 ..	.. 0.2	11.8	0.2	12.2
1932-33 ..	.. 0.2	13.1	0.3	13.6
1933.34 ..	. 0.2	12.8	0.3	13.2
1934 35 .	. 0.1	13.0	0.3	13.5
1935-36 ..	.. 0.1	13.1	0.4	13.6
1936-37 .	.. 0.2	12.4	0.1	12.7
1937-38 ..	.. £	11.8	0.2	11.9

Contd........

1	2	3	4	5
1938-39 ..	.. ..	12.7	0.3	13.0
1939-40 ..	.. ..	14.5	0.3	14.7
1940-41 ..	.. 0 1	13.8	0 4	14.2
1941-42 ..	.. ..	13.6	0.4	13.9
1942-43 ..	.. 0.2	14.6	0.2	15.1
1943-44 ..	.. 0.3	16.2	0.2	16.7
1944-45 ..	.. 0.5	17 6	0.1	18.3
1945-46 ..	.. 0.2	17.9	0.4	18.5
1946-47 .	.. 0.2	17.1	0.2	17.5
1947-48 .	.. 0.2	17.6	0 2	18.0
1948-49 ..	.. 0.3	16.6	0.2	17.1
1949-50 ..	.. £	17.5	0.3	17.8
1950-51 ..	.. £	17.3	0.2	17.5
1951-52 .	.. ..	18.1	0.2	18.3
1952-53 .	.. ..	15.2	0.2	15.4
1953-54 .	.. ..	19.0	0.3	19.3
1954-55 .	.. ..	19.9	0 5	20.4
1955-56 ..	.. ..	20.0	0.6	20.6
1956-57 .	.. 0.2	22.5	0.4	23.1
1957-58 .	.. 0.1	20.8	0.3	21.2
1958-59 ..	. £	19.8	0 5	20 3
1959-60 ..	. £	23.5	0 5	24.0
1960-61 .	.. £	22.7	0 5	23.2
1961-62 .	.. 0 2	21.3	0.4	21 9
1962-63 ..	.. 0.2	23.4	0.6	24 2
1963-64	.. 0.5	25 5	0.3	26.3

Note:—1. £ Denotes the figures below fifty.

2. There is no tank irrigation in the District.

.....—Concluded.

TAALE IX
Area Irrigated: Sources of Water Supply : Tahsil-wise (1961-52)

(In Acres)

Year	By Canals and Tanks	By Wells	By Other Sources	Total Area Irrigated
1961-62				
Khandwa	185	14,882	110	15,177
Harsud	25	1,908	209	2,142
Burhanpur	..	4,518	67	4,585
Total	210	21,308	386	21,904

TABLE X
Area Under Principal Crops

(In Thousand Acres)

Year	Jowar	Rice	Tur	Groundnut	Cotton	Wheat	Gram
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
At 20 years' Settlement .	142.5	7.4	37.4	N.A.	..	8.9	5.8
1891-92	157.6	10.5	38.7	„	93.7	31.8	6.7
1892-93	169.8	11.8	41.4	„	88.5	39.8	9.5
1893-94	146.9	17.3	38.9	„	107.3	42.4	10.9
1894-95	170.3	15.8	41 7	„	105.9	38.8	9.0
1895-96	170.4	15.8	39 8	„	112.2	32.0	8.2
At Settlement ..	147.2	14.0	34 3	„	127.7	23.1	6.2
1896-97	164 0	20.2	31.5	„	146.2	37.0	10.2
1897-98	195.4	22.7	34.5	„	123.4	24.3	6.7
1898-99	181 5	21.4	37.3	„	130.7	32.9	12.1
1899-1900 .	176.5	20.5	53.4	„	128.2	2.2	1.1
1900-01	181.5	9.3	32.5	„	187.0	24.6	11.6
1901-02 . ..	196.5	13.3	29.7	„	208.4	19.4	14.5
1902-03 .. .	233.5	12.0	34.1	„	220.3	17.4	17.4
1903-04 .. .	168.7	7.5	31.6	„	262.7	38.7	23 3

Contd..... ..

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1904-05 ..	.. 147.5	9.9	31.8	"	298.4	49.3	19.6
1905-06 .	.. 202.9	11.4	30.6	"	308.3	41.2	14.5
1906-07 ..	.. 183.7	12.4	31.0	"	313.1	52.7	17.6
1907-08 ..	.. 193.3	14.8	27 0	"	268.1	33.9	16.5
1908-09 ..	.. 224.9	9.0	30.8	"	239.5	26.5	17.9
1909-10 ..	.. 214.5	11.3	31.9	"	256.7	28.2	17.8
1910-11 .	.. 176.1	9.9	30.7	"	324.2	33.9	23.7
1911-12 ..	.. 157.7	12.4	30 1	"	359.7	33.6	20.2
1912-13 ..	.. 180.4	10.0	29.3	1.0	347.3	37 6	22.4
1913-14 ..	.. 185.7	6.0	24.7	0.8	367.0	46.0	23.5
1914-15 ..	.. 203.1	8.3	28.3	1.5	346.6	42.2	14.3
1915-16 ..	.. 239.2	13.3	33.3	2.4	261.4	41.7	12.6
1916-17 ..	.. 181.9	15.1	39.6	2.7	352.5	42.5	15.6
1917-18 ..	.. 156.2	17.0	29.3	2.6	354.0	50.2	23.6
1918-19 ..	. 213.2	19.4	30.3	2.2	297.5	23.1	14.8
1919-20 ..	.. 206.0	17.6	31.6	1.1	328.9	24.2	11.4
1920-21 ..	.. 183.6	15.6	23.6	1.9	291.5	30.7	20.4
1921-22 ..	.. 225.2	17.8	27.4	2.3	244.5	29.8	12.3
1922-23 ..	.. 198.6	14.8	28.9	..	301.7	31.2	14 4
1923-24 ..	.. 170.0	14.5	29.0	..	356.6	34.7	19.3
1924-25 .	.. 169.4	12.5	30.5	4.2	401.5	33.3	14.6
1925-26 ..	.. 163.4	13.9	33.5	10.3	431.1	31.2	23.5
1926-27 ..	.. 210.9	16 2	31.5	9.9	394.6	38.0	17.2
1927-28 .	.. 225.8	17.7	32.0	15.7	362.6	40.3	19.5
1928-29 ..	.. 187.1	18.9	30.2	23.1	392.2	46.6	21.5
1929-30 ..	.. 216.6	17.9	28.6	26.5	383.6	49.1	15.5
1930-31 .	.. 251.1	18.6	30.2	24.1	354.3	49.2	12.2
1931-32 ..	.. 245.7	20.1	30.6	26.8	341.8	55.4	21.9
1932-33	.. 252.9	21.9	29.0	28.7	311.1	63.7	29.0
1933-34 .	. 247 8	23.2	32.5	27.3	339.1	56.5	18.6
1934-35	.. 240.1	25.1	37.0	22.3	356.9	61.9	24.0
1935 36 .	.. 245 6	27.3	37.9	19.0	358.1	62.5	30.7
1936-37 ..	.. 260.2	29.7	36.2	16.9	341.2	61.1	16.3
1937-38 ..	.. 246.9	30.9	35.4	16.6	357.3	62.0	25.4
1938-39 .	.. 244 8	33.7	34.9	17.5	320.4	65.4	20 8

Contd.......

EAST NIMAR

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1939-40 .. .	262.8	35.8	36.3	19.2	289.1	63.9	13.2
1940-41 .. .	265.3	35.3	37.7	19.4	303.5	65.6	18.6
1941-42 . ..	261.0	31.6	39.1	18.3	347.9	61.1	11.8
1942-43	333.7	37.3	36.5	17.2	259.9	50.2	11.9
1943-44 . ..	330.3	41.0	38.8	21.7	254.5	54.3	16.0
1944-45	315.5	47.8	32.6	43.2	204.6	74.5	33.2
1945-46 .. .	336.7	55.5	31.5	46.9	182.5	64.4	21.5
1946-47	239.0	54.5	34.6	46.0	204.7	67.0	25.7
1947-48	243.9	57.1	33.8	53.1	222.7	30.6	23.5
1948-49 .. .	234.5	58.7	34.1	57.9	218.4	39 5	30.9
1949-50	216.8	57.7	35.6	57.0	200.3	49.1	35.2
1950.51 .. .	223.1	58.8	33.2	47.7	222.7	52.4	19.9
1951-52 .. .	222.1	57.1	35.2	49.2	245.7	53.7	15.2
1952-53	234.2	49.3	31.4	63.1	274.7	34.1	10.6
1953-54 .. .	251.2	42.3	38.1	39.7	312.0	40.4	11.5
1954-55	243.5	40.0	35 8	45.4	336.4	48.7	16.3
1955-56 .	221.6	50.9	37.4	52.0	345.6	60.7	19.1
1956.57	224 8	62.6	33.5	75.5	295.3	74.0	24.4
1957-58 . .	224.8	58.7	33.6	88.0	320.4	57.4	13.7
1958-59 .. .	223.7	60 5	32.0	101.0	340.8	56.5	17.1
1959-60 . ..	217.7	61.3	31.0	101.0	326 0	81.1	27 8
1960-61	236.1	64.9	32.5	81.0	346.0	62 9	18.2
1961-62	215.1	60.5	35.9	82.9	396.2	58.7	16.7
1962-63	232.9	64.7	34.1	77.8	368.0	64.3	18.6
1963-64	230.2	66 3	35.6	71.0	385.8	67.4	20.0

........Concluded.

TABLE XI
Area Under Principal Crops Tahsil-wise
(1961-62)

(In Acres)

Tahsil	Jowar	Rice	Tur	Groundnut	Cotton	Wheat	Gram	Total Kharif	Total Rabi	Total Cropped Area
Khandwa	1,37,317	17,944	17,341	57,798	1,88,045	18,481	5,478	4,87,062	29,045	5,16,107
Harsud	34,095	33,774	6,778	19,429	77,175	30,561	8,109	2,14,891	15,555	2,61,619
Burhanpur	42,995	8,770	11,791	5,718	1,30,976	9,687	3,158	2,28,894	46,728	2,44,449
	733 Rabi jowar									
Total	2,15,140	60,488	35,910	82,945	3,96,196	58,729	16,745	9,30,847	91,328	10,22,175

TABLE XII
Out-turn of Principal Crops

(In Thousand Tons)

Year	Jowar	Rice	Tur	Groundnut	Cotton	Wheat	Gram
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1919-20 ..	..	6.1	..	..	..	..	6.5
1920-21 ..	..	2.6	..	..	..	..	5.9
1921-22 ..	..	6.0	..	..	.	..	12.2
1922-23 ..	..	3.1	..	..	..	74.1	11.6
1923-24 ..	..	3.6	.	..	..	85.8	10.4
1924-25 ..	..	3.7	..	..	..	80.5	11.7
1925-26 ..	..	2.3	..	..	..	79.4	9.4
1926-27 ..	..	4.5	.	.	..	..	9.4
1927-28 ..	..	4.4	..	..	103.6	12.5	..
1928-29 ..	..	5.9	..	..	106.7	11.8	..
1929-30 ..	..	4.8	..	..	94.0	10.3	..
1930-31 ..	70.8	4.6	.	.	94.2	11.3	..
1931-32 ..	49 5	4.6	..	..	42.0	11.0	..
1932-33 ..	71.3	5.9	.	..	63.6	..	..
1933-34 ..	64.9	6.3	..	..	76.3	16.2	..
1934-35 ..	43.5	7.8	.	..	43 8	17.3	4.4
1935-36 .	59.4	7.4	..	..	80.6	17.4	5.2
1936-37 ..	47.2	8.7	4.9	..	76.8	15.6	3.6
1937-38 ..	59.7	7.7	5.7	..	73.1	17.2	5 1
1938-39 ..	54.2	9.1	6.1	..	65.6	16 6	4.2
1939-40 ..	58.2	6.7	5.9	..	65.1	16.3	2.7
1940-41 ..	64.1	8.8	6.0	.	93.1	16.8	3 8
1941-42 ..	52.6	5.9	4.3	..	81.9	12.1	1 6
1942-43 ..	73.9	10.1	5.0	..	53.2	13.4	2.0
1943-44 ..	69.8	11.1	6.3	..	52 1	11.7	2.9
1944-45 ..	63.5	9 9	5.3	..	34.3	18.4	5.6
1945-46 ..	81.4	11.6	3 8	..	38 6	13 7	3.2
1946-47 ..	28.9	11.3	2 8	..	37.7	0.8	3.0
1947-48 ..	28.3	13.1	4.6	18.4	49.3	7.3	3.9
1948-49 ..	28 3	13.8	3 2	17.7	26.8	10.7	5.7

Contd........

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1949-50 ..	.. 45.8	14.2	5.3	15.5	34.8	13.0	6.5
1950-51 ..	.. 33.7	9.9	4.0	13.2	36.4	14.4	3.4
1951-52 ..	.. 40.3	8.9	18.8	13.3	50.3	12.8	2.4
1952-53 ..	.. 32.6	14.3	13.7	7.2	45.0	7.9	1.2
1953-54 ..	.. 56.2	10.8	21.1	11.7	57.4	10.6	1.8
1954-55 ..	.. 53.7	10.9	14.3	13.1	43.6	17.1	3.2
1955-56 .	.. 36.8	14.1	22.7	15.2	42.4	17.8	1.0
1956-57 ..	.. 55.1	19.8	9.7	22.1	56.6	19.3	6.6
1957-58 .	.. 67.6	11.2	12.4	24.2	66.3	6.0	1.4
1958-59 ..	.. 73.2	16.3	17.8	34.2	49.2	13.3	3.4
1959-60 ..	.. 70.3	11.7	10.5	18.0	37.1	23.2	6.3
1960-61 .	.. 72.6	16.9	18.1	24.5	92.8	15.8	3.2
1961-62 ..	.. 64.4	21.8	12.1	12.7	38.0	15.8	3.2
1962-63 .	.. 90.2	18.1	11.1	14.7	60.9	19.6	4.8
1963-64 ..	.. 61.1	28.3	13.3	14.2	71.3	15.8	4.5

.... .Concluded.

TABLE XIII

Agricultural Machinery and Implements

Year	Ploughs		Carts	Sugarcane Crushers Worked by		Oil Engines with Pumps for Irrigation Purposes	Oil Engines for Other Purposes	Persian Wheels	Motes	Electric Pumps for Irrigation Purposes	Tractors		Ghanis	
	Wooden	Iron		Power	Bullocks						Govt.	Private	Five Seers and over	Less Than Five Seers
1951	49,375	4,871	44,362	10	38	164	..	..	..	2	9	..	57	98
1956	55,653	7,867	51,390	21	59	326	39	297	10,210	7	..	12	95	136
1961	65,178	10,418	60,504	57	84	782	148	264	12,679	332	..	17	74	79

TABLE XIV
Co-operative Farming Societies

Year and Place of Establishment	Membership	Share Capital Contribution (Rs.)		Area (Acres)	
		Govt.	Members	Total	Pooled by Members
1	2	3	4	5	6
		Project Area			
1961—62					
1. Bhamgarh ..	.. 21	2,000	2,525	191	159.82
2. Jawar ..	.. 20	2,000	2,285	147.50	141.50
3. Jaswadi ..	.. 20	2,000	2,940	205.55	133.55
4. Machondi ..	.. 20	2,000	2,120	126.69	126.69
1963-64					
5. Bhandariya ..	. 18	2,000	2,225	178.10	178.10
6. Amalpura ..	.. 12	2,000	2,050	167.72	167.72
7. Bhavsinghpura	.. 12	2,000	2,200	101.41	101.41
8. Kogwada ..	.. 12	2,000	2,075	178.03	178.03
9. Dharampuri	.. 12	2,000	2,125	150.86	150.86
1964-65					
10. Nagchun ..	. 12	Nil	2,775	53.12	53.12
11. Dhondwada..	.. 12	Nil	3,075	63.90	60.90
12. Amlani ..	.. 11	Nil	2,575	100 03	100.03
13. Roshnai ..	11	Nil	2,050	59.80	59.80
		Non-Pilot Project Area			
1961-62					
1. Biroda .	.. 14	2,000	3,470	124.39	116.0
1962-63					
2. Bergaon ..	. 22	2,000	5,810	211.47	169.74
3. Nayar	.. 12	2,000	2,006	74.20	74 20
4. Bandurla ..	.. 15	2,000	3,200	183.00	129.51
1963-64					
5. Bhilai ..	.. 12	2,000	3,250	99.70	99.70
1964-65					
6. Tanklimosi ..	.. 11	Nil	2,800	89.25	89 25

TABLE XV
Working of Co-operative Marketing Societies

	Particulars		Khandwa	Harsud	Burhanpur
1.	Membership Society	Nos.	171	116	83
	Independents	Nos.	229	333	364
	Government	Nos.	1	1	1
2.	Share Capital	Rs.	2,04,570	55,650	3,22,275
	Govt. Contribution	Rs.	(1,62,000)	(21,000)	(2,68,000)
3.	Reserves	Rs	22,408	17,493	11,117
4.	Other Funds	Rs.	43,253	13,144	21,172
5.	Deposits	Rs.	54,390	31,760	2,463
6.	Value of Outright Purchases .	Rs.	1,50,259	8,70,734	9,00,814
7.	Sales in 1963-64 of Agricultural Produce				
	As Owners	Rs.	Nil	8,42,469	2,35,758
	As Agent	Rs.	9,52,562	2,33,650	9,64,220
	Pledge Advanced .. .	..	..	..	83,930
8.	Value of Other Commodities Marketed in 1963-64				
	(i) Agricultural Requisites ..				
	As owner	Rs.	20,116	15,567	2,28,027
	As Agent . ..	Rs.	7,55,973	9,754	11,48,974
	(ii) Consumers' Goods				
	As Owner	Rs.	1,26,577	3,62,039	6,54,222
	As Agent		Nil	Nil	Nil
9.	Commission Earned				
	On Sale	Rs.	19,746	4,305	97,666
	On Others				
10.	Storage Capacity (Quintals) ..	Rs	8,259	2,000	1,000
11.	Godown Loans .. .	Rs.	31,875	31,875	39,375
	Subsidy	Rs.	10,625	10,625	13,125

TABLE XVI
Livestock and Poultry Population

Sl No.	Categories	1940	1945	1951	1956	1961
		Figures According to Livestock Census for the Quinquennial ending				
1.	Cattle	3,22,010	3,27,821	3,35,067	4,01,427	4,27,762
2.	Buffaloes	85,120	90,269	78,981	87,831	91,396
3.	Sheep	13,173	1,837	2,252	5,825	10,688
4.	Goats .	48,194	45,979	45,461	77,272	76,996
5.	Horses & Ponies .	2,482	2,118	2,098	2,366	2,169
6.	Donkeys	1,137	912	629	771	957
7.	Mules	7	..	..	Nil	..
8.	Camels	37	4	.	Nil	..
9.	Pigs . ..	570	563	815	1,277	677
	Total Livestock			4,65,303	5,76,769	6,10,645
10	Poultry					
	(I) Fowls	Not Available	52,736	35,419	93,417	81,810
	(II) Ducks	—do—	203	340	321	173
	(III) Others	—do—	Nil	Nil	636	731
	Total Poultry	—do—	52,939	35,759	94,374	82,714

TABLE XVII

Livestock and Poultry Population Tahsil-wise

Year (Census Year)	Cattle	Buffaloes	Sheep	Goats	Horses and Ponies	Mules	Donkeys	Camels	Pigs	Total Livestock	Poultry			
											Fowls	Ducks	Others	Total
1956	4,01,427	87,831	5,825	77,272	2,366	..	771	..	1,277	5,76,769	93,417	321	636	94,374
Khandwa	1,89,936	43,917	106	43,235	1,007	..	202	..	695	2,79,098	36,688	89	180	36,957
Burhanpur	86,069	16,084	5,676	17,103	734	..	530	..	527	1,26,723	32,689	225	383	33,297
Harsud	1,25,422	27,830	43	16,934	625	..	39	..	55	1,70,948	24,040	7	73	24,120
1961	4,27,762	91,396	10,688	76,996	2,169	..	957	..	677	6,10,645	81,810	173	731	82,714
Khandwa	1,97,792	44,783	71	39,308	824	.	204	..	363	2,83,345	27,053	76	133	27,262
Burhanpur	98,902	17,446	10,526	21,179	674	..	721	..	270	1,49,718	32,470	81	505	33,056
Harsud	1,31,068	29,167	91	16,509	671	..	32	.	44	1,77,582	22,287	16	93	22,396

TABLE—XVIII

Volume And Value of Forest Produce (East Nimar Forest Division)

Year	Timber		Fire-wood		Total Value of Major Forest Produce	Bamboos		Grass & Grazing		Tendu leaves		Total Value of Minor Forest Produce (Rs.)
	Out-turn ('000 cft.)	Value (Rs.)	Out-turn ('000cft.)	Value (Rs.)		Out-turn ('000 cft.)	Value (Rs.)	Out-turn (Tons)	Value (Rs.)	Out-turn	Value (Rs.)	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1937-38	517	1,68,694	1,706	36,589	2,05 283	680	10,341	1,072	2,21,676	Auctioned	1,895	7,064
1938-39	564	1.76,352	2,346	44,750	2,21,102	662	10,231	7,277	2.08,115	—do—	2,025	7,083
1939-40	594	1,63,808	2,387	46,125	2,09,933	858	13,929	7,883	1,88,216	—do—	1,235	5,546
1940-41	640	2,22,335	1,562	58,916	2,81,251	860	13,401	7,567	2,02,227	—do—	3,049	8,034
1941-42	991	3,04,080	1,180	62,267	3,66,356	1,055	18,305	11,905	2,33,705	—do—	1.616	6,582
1942-43	1,148	12,63,640	1,359	1,28,195	13,91,835	911	14,898	10,815	2,45,292	—do—	5,171	10,227
1943-44	1,055	9,76,858	1,570	1,76,485	11,53,343	912	14,701	1,460	2,33,537	—do—	7,518	13,393
1944-45	761	9,61,790	917	1,11,832	10,73,622	1,213	16,253	6,722	2,67,233	—do—	20,179	25,338
1945-46	551	6,68,039	1,106	1,42,106	1,10,145	134	19,221	..	2,33,113	300 tons	16,660	24.105
1946-47	150	4.75,752	277	13,860	4,89,612	1,715	29,473	6,121	1,31,957	Auctioned	6,000	31,620
1947-48	479	3,01,556	3,766	1,88,109	4.82,665	789	24,848	6,825	1,89,125	—do—	42,100	48,359
1948-49	379	4,05,737	2.972	3,57,110	7,62,847	812	27,018	9,541	2.87,701	—do—	81,600	89,475

Contd.... ...

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1949-50	387	4,45,060	1,712	3,69,375	8,14,435	2,203	22,884	2,309	4,32,948	—do—	31,350	41,115
1950-51	367	3,75,834	177	3,85,651	7,61,405	135	12,094	..	2,06,841	—do—	57,375	71,218
1951-52	101	1,58,376	652	4,49,062	6,07,458	855	27,908	..	3,21,047	—do—	49,355	66,296
1952-53	540	6,34,464	1,898	6,70,066	13,04,530	502	16,378	..	4,56,562	—do—	27,025	44,112
1953-54	436	4,57,614	1,275	4,25,887	8,83,501	551	17,921	12,087	2,74,951	1,910 Bundles	9,550	26.869
1954-55	400	3,89,644	1,245	3,01,622	6,91,266	567	19,554	7,520	1,98,234	Auctioned	9,875	26,742
1955-56	509	6,24,918	2,177	3,81,899	10.06,817	434	15,773	..	2,22,915	—do—	23,310	35,785
1956-57	143	3,04,507	727	2,15,569	5,20,076	171	7,305	..	2,98,015	—do—	700	10,084
1957-58	402	10,22,907	1,963	4,03,862	14,26,769	278	14,518	9,522	4,06,345	1,885 Bundles	9,225	33,739
1958-59	417	11,68,110	2,549	6,09,536	17,77,646	428	20,817	9,351	3,78,729	Auctioned	52,975	76,041
1959-60	313	12,06,645	19,836	10,18,164	22,24,809	197	25,082	5,794	4,20,428	—do—	40,550	56,047
1960-61	387	21,29,939	25,579	13,15.514	34,45,453	1,010	44,235	12,954	4,25,296	—do—	49,000	1,01,140

Note:—Excludes the information for Chandgarh and East Kalibhit Ranges of Nimar District which remained in Harda Division from 1.3. 1954 to 31-3-1960.

..........Concluded

TABLE XIX

Revenue and Expenditure of Forests

(East Nimar Forest Division)

(In Rupees)

Year	Revenue	Expenditure
1	2	3
1919-20	2,79,250	1,29,332
1920-21	2,33,367	1,25,609
1921-22	2,57,775	1,52,557
1922-23	2.57,352	1,48,662
1923-24	3,08,680	1,61,607
1924-25	3,28,651	1,67,114
1925-26	3,62,323	2,13,818
1926-27	3,21,072	1,95,751
1927-28	2,90,806	1.63,605
1928-29	3,07,181	1,98,383
1929-30	3,25,087	1,91,826
1930-31	2,29,898	1,66,921
1931-32	2,52,283	1,64,546
1932-33	2,98,700	1,23,990
1933-34	3,32,599	1,93,427
1934-35	3,57,113	2,02,470
1935-36	3,52,363	2.08,923
1936-37	3,46,263	2,21,682
1937-38	3,55,684	2,32,140
1938-39	3,37,842	2,22,204
1939-40	3,22,524	2,31,168
1940-41	4,06,504	2,63 376
1941-42	5,15,375	4,23,672
1942-43	15,67,526	10,29,417
1943-44	14,06,808	9,09,584
1944-45	12,72,246	6,83,118
1945-46	10,44,386	5,39,826
1946-47	13,90,906	3,21,568
1947-48	7,32,649	3,49,289
1948-49	11,21,698	4.04,015
1949-50	12,74,627	4,94.101

Contd.......

1	2	3
1950-51	10,28,969	3,09,238
1951-52	16,52,410	3,81,713
1952-53	17,09,959	4,56,243
1953-54	11,53,090	3,90,103
1954-55	8,76,075	4,42,033
1955-56	11,64,938	6,36.612
1956-57	15,38.907	6,28,949
1957-58	17,34,178	6,39,006
1958-59	20,61,057	6,97,452
1959-60	24,92,190	7,96,859
1960-61	38,18,255	9,81,497
1961-62	17,37,769	7,07,071

......Concluded

TABLE XX
Taccavi Loans Distributed

(In Rupees)

Type of Taccavi	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
Seeds .. .	124,042	320,376	392,312	712,342	628,452
Bullocks	342,600	76,793	148.915	285.353	179,210
Wells . ..	96,050	206,008	299,520	220,050	129,037
Pumping sets .. .	137,750	422,109	222,770	117,700	346,200
Oil engine pumps ..	39,200	398,309	321,290	454,700	601,600
Rahats ..	11,000	18,000	..	..	..
Tractors	9,200	1,200	8,500	8,000	..
Manures and fertilizers .	139,144	528,403	481,854	872,920	784,567
Horticulture ..	..	56.250	19,600	..	5,400
Embankments ..	68,915	29,770	43,170	36,000	45,560
Soil conservation .	..	..	..	10,000	..
Plant-protection .	..	..	17,224	..	2,400
Weeding	49,625	4,500	13,650	20,480	26,000
Total	1,017,526	2,061,718	1,968,805	273,545	2,748,426

TABLE—XXI

Schemes of Co-operatives under the III Five-Year Plan, 1961-62 to 1965-66

(Targets and Achievements.)

	Scheme	Targets		Achievements (Year)					
				1961-62		1962-63		1963-64	
		Physical Nos	Financial Rs.	Physical Nos	Financial Rs.	Physical Nos.	Financial Rs.	Physical Nos.	Financial Rs. (Jan. 1964)
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Village Service Coopera-tive Societies (i) Revitalisation of existing societies	242	..	40	21,600	94	41,400	3	Proposals of sub-sidies for 120 Socs. for Rs. 41,400 has been sent to Deptt. for release of assistance.
	Existing Societies	—	2,11,840 (subsidy)	..	..	..	..	..	..
	(ii) New Societies Total	34 } 276 }	—	10	..	16	41,400	..	..
2	Primary Marketing Societies	3 existing Soc.	20,000 (Share capital) 3,350 (subsidy)	..	..	..	—	..	..
3	Processing Units	2	2,90,000 (Share capital) 11,000 (Subsidy)	(To set up cotton gin.)	2,56,500	..	3,650	..	..
4	Grading Equipments to Marketing Societies	2	10,000	...	11,00	..	850	..	..

Contd........

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5. Rural Godowns	14	1,40,000	1	10,000	1	10,000	.	Proposals of 3 godowns sent to Registrar. (Rs. 740 instalment)
6. Primary Consumers' Co-operative Stores	8	32,700	5	17,000	..	3,000	..	Proposal sent to Registrar.
7. District Co-operative Union	1	7,000	1	850	..	1,980	..	Proposal of Rs. 1.504 sent.
8. Joint Farming Societies (i) Pilot Project (Khandwa Block)	10	1,22,000	5	58,000	..	1,215	5	Proposals for 65 Societies will be sent in Feb.' 64.
(ii) Outside Pilot Areas	10	1,00,000	1	9,600	3	200/- The financial assistance has been released to 3 Societies.	2	28,940
(iii) Better Farming Societies	10 (Of IInd Plan)	33,000	..	9,554	..	4,415	..	Proposal sent.

Contd........

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9. Branches of Central Bank	5	25,000	2	5,000	The bank did not opened any branch	3,300	1	Proposal for Rs. 2,500 sent.
10. Development of Land Mortgage Banks	1	7,000	..	3,500	..	2,300		Proposal for 2nd instalment sent.
11. Supervision of Societies	..	1,00,000	..	20,667		20 361	..	Proposal for additional Rs. 8,550 sent.

NOTE:—Besides it is proposed to give share capital contribution to cooperative credit institutions (village societies and Central Banks) out of funds to be obtained from the Reserve Bank of India outside the Plan budget. The object is to increase the borrowing power of these institutions so as to meet the increasing demand consequent on expression of the movement.

Concluded.........

TABLE XXII

Export of General Merchandise, Cotton and Newsprint 1953-54 to 1963-64

Year	General Merchandise in (mds.)							Oilseed	Cotton (bales exported from Khandwa)	Newsprint Exported
	Wheat	Juar	Groundnut	Urd	Mung	Til	Cotton-seed			
1953-54	8,697	69,516	88,061	2,71,651	7,815	1,06,287	1,71,287	83,056	28,561	..
1954-55	13,440	20,148	27,933	48.847	3,163	30,855	30,855	68,340	25,193	..
1955-56	3,540	31,710	1,11,141	1,06,407	8,295	32,352	99,327	1,22,277	24,686	..
1956-57	15,81[illegible]	30,555	91,387	1,84,439	83,406	51,287	2,03,496	70,773	41,039	..
1957-58	7,383	52,084	44,394	2,49,163	37,831	21,513	1,05,312	4,38,320	41,588	..
1958-59	.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	21,853
1959-60	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	23,000	22,494
1960-61	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	60,000	23,472
1961-62	..	..	..	..	..	.	..	..	26,000	25,143
1962-63	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	43,500	26,676
1963-64	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	54,000	.

Source—(1) Grain Merchants' Association, Khandwa.
(2) Cotton Merchants' Association, Khandwa.
(3) The National Newsprint & Paper Mills, Ltd., Nepanager.

TABLE—XXIII

Import Trade, Burhanpur Municipal Area (1951-42 to 1960-61)

Items	Unit	Years: 1951-52	1952-53	1953-54	1954-55	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
Food grains	Mds.	3,73,770	4,58,107	5,71,578	4,55,829	6,45,173	8,73,066	5,51,856	6,59,360	6,57,616	11,58,064
Oilseeds	,,	42,488	25,313	40,976	29,488	33,208	45,328	31,976	29,672	42,288	27,890
Groundnut	,,	23.104	21.405	21,116	24,938	39.509	35,114	35.901	46,581	45,760	47,474
Oil	,,	19,504	17 049	19,639	30,168	47,486	16,145	11,466	17,529	23,846	27,594
Fresh fruits	,,	1,39.052	N.A.	10.136	1,21,884	91,308	2,89,760	84,024	9,194	85,980	N.A.
Sugar	,,	40,059	3,35.883	33,058	34,092	31.344	40,982	36,247	17,936	40,689	27,545
Gur	,,	29,462	26,019	30,503	26,755	19,443	27,958	25.184	15,930	31,616	N.A.
Salt	,,	21,144	20,963	11,648	19 920	19,008	13,992	12,056	23,704	17,056	20,184
Kerosene oil, petrol, etc.	Gallons	5 28.128	6,226	51,529	90,082	3,76.192	38,736	4,586	N.A.	5,784	7,865
Steam coal	Tons	2,82,240	N A.	2,04 092	6,400	81,312	2,144	2.840	N.A.	5,648	7,168
Kirana	Rs.	11,94,688	11,16,430	4,04,030	12,50,240	12,20,640	15,34,464	16,21,568	15,74,636	13,63,648	16,49,261
Tabacco	,,	2,49,248	2,57 733	2,90,432	4,17,376	2,68,832	3,07,712	3,37,248	4,21,888	5,51,676	5,56,416
Cloth	,,	15,35,664	11 78,459	11,73,504	11,55,808	15,80,864	15,55,680	18,67,302	20,33,312	17,35,360	2,27,552
Yarn	,,	28,15,744	34,42,512	34,33,792	30,65,024	37,70,624	38,81,600	52,42,816	60,47,152	88,07,104	11,48,492
Utensils	,,	1,84,928	1,19,515	1,26,717	1,47,392	1,81,824	1,10,567	1,22,480	2,21,152	1,66,880	2 84,640
Iron	Mds.	12,624	11,420	13,240	11,344	19,320	26,208	14,852	28,800	25,312	29,328
Machinery	Rs.	4,97,535	23,75,424	1,16,876	2,43,776	1,82,784	2,39,744	76,864	6,60,480	6,59,968	22,66,432

Source.—Municipal Council, Burhanpur.

TABLE XXIV
Import Trade, Khandwa Municipal Area (1955-56 to 1960-61)

Commodities	Unit	Years					
		1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
Grain	Mds.	4,01,943	7,41,840	8,77,634	6,94,829	10,81,737	7,41,686
Refined sugar ..	„	46,761	64,662	69,777	63,741	61,086	65,310
Unrefined sugar ..	„	56,637	88,857	70,284	84,135	84,894	96,198
Oil	„	N.A.	6,62,653	9,84,067	8,62,528	5,13,649	8,13,755
Tabacco ..	„	2,386	3,907	N.A.	N.A.	2,544	3,568
Cloth & piece goods articles of clothing	„	26,313	21,521	21,764	18,380	16,525	20,726
Metal & articles of metal,	„	54,058	61,240	19,762	74,374	47,399	43,187

Source--Municipal Council, Khandwa

TABLE XXV
Weekly and Fortnightly Markets

Tahsil	Urban/ Rural	Name of the Village and days.
1	2	3
Khandwa	Urban	Khandwa (Ward No 12).
	Rural	Godadpura (Wed.), Sulgaon (Sat.), Indhawadi (Sun.), Dhangaon (Wed.), Khedi Bujurg (Fri.), Punasa (Fri.), Atood Khas (Thu.), Attar (Thu.), Kalmukhi (Wed.), Khutala Kalan (Thu.) Barood (Sat.), Jamkota (Sun.), Sirsood (Mon.), Mundi (Thu.), Bir (Mon), Diwal (Mon), Sihada (Tue.), Jawar (Fri.), Pandhana (Tue), Sahejalal (Bhamagarh) (Tue.), Bhamgarh Nazul (Sat), Arod (Fri.), Khirala (Wed), Borgaon Bujurg (Sat), Kohadad (Thu.), Gandhawa (Mon.). Singot (Tue.), Piplod Khas (Wed.), Gudikheda Rly. (Fri.).
Harsud	Urban	Nil.
	Rural	Badkeswer (Sun), Baldi (Mon.), Jabgaon (Wed.), Khudia (Mal) (Fri.), Borkheda Khurd (Tue), Harsud (Mal) (Sun.), Khedi

Contd., ...

1	2	3
		(Fri.), Chhanera P.A. (Mon), Borisaria (Tue.), Kharkalan (Thu.), Paldia Mal (Wed.), Khalwa P.A. (Wed.), Roshani (Mon.).
Burhanpur	Urban	Burhanpur, (Nepanagar (Circle No. 1) (Sunday).
	Rural	Naora (Fri.), Raitalai (Sat.), Manjrod Kalan (Thu.), Khaknar Kalan (Mon.), Sarola (Wed.), Doiphodia (Tue.), Bahadarpur (Sun.), Phophanar Kalan (Fri.), Pipalgaon Rly. (Wed.), Shahpur (Tue.), Bham Bada (Sat.), Icchapur (Wed.).

Source:—East Nimar District Census Hand Book, 1961.

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TABLE XXVI
Rail-Borne Traffic (Broad gauge)

Name of the Rly. Station	No. of Passengers booked	Passenger Earnings (Rs.)	Weight of Out-ward Goods (Tons)	Out-ward Goods Earnings (Rs.)	Weight Inward Goods (Tons)	Inward Goods Earnings (Rs.)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Khandwa						
1954-55	3,63,923	7,00,674	6,20,431	3,38,285	13,18,468	6,35,377
1955-56	3,65,307	7,37.464	8,45,206	3,59,075	12,98,864	4,99,848
1956-57 (Upto 31st Dec. '56)	4,80,336	10,69.792	9,74,357	10,46,717	9 61,783	12,87,714
Burhanpur						
1954-55	3,58,498	5,11,832	3,69,205	3,02,229	7,75,887	3,25,350
1955-56	3,62,412	3,15,779	4,09,543	2,39,508	6,99,348	3,22,025
1956-57 (Upto 31st Dec. '56)	3,94,842	7,03,885	4,87,634	8 09,323	8,48,427	8,29,809
Ir						
954-55	86,253	64,443	1,61,583	81,086	59,327	13,909
955-56	85,772	63,916	1,62,494	78,505	34,387	10,727
1956-57 (Upto 31st Dec. '56).	1,10,831	89,375	2,27,713	8,19,275	80,927	72,661

Contd.......

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Harsud						
1954-55	1,01,911	83,823	1,46,673	71,890	46,292	20,537
1955-56	1,11,486	93,909	97,324	53,507	70,310	23,566
1956-57 (Upto 31st Dec. '56)	84,890	86,558	1,33,325	1,19,643	86,391	69,612

TABLE XXVII
Rail-Borne Traffic on Western Railway

Stations Years	Passengers Originating (Nos.)	Goods Traffic	
		Outward (Tons)	Inward (Tons)
Khandwa			
1955-56	1,62,332	6,483	8,203
1956-57	1,81,996	9,229	8,402
1957-58	2,15,684	10,264	16,669
1958-59	2,37,285	7,511	12,964
Nimarkhedi			
1955-56	82,344	1,409	1,009
1956-57	89,259	2,195	1,095
1957-58	82,681	1,945	1,571
1958-59	84,218	1,588	1,012
Omkareshwar Road			
1955-56	86,897	2,601	820
1956-57	96,458	3,549	1,075
1957-58	1,38,416	3,731	622
1958-59	1,24,280	2,192	107

TABLE XXVIII
Expenditure on Block Development

(In Rs.)

S. No.	Head	Expenditure First Plan	Expenditure Second Plan
1.	Agriculture and Animal Husbandry ..	86,806	2,39,384
2.	Irrigation	5,49,361	6,15,325
3.	Reclamation	..	16,707
4.	Public Health	2,72,736	2,54,054
5.	Education	3,48,165	3,20,135
6.	Transport and Communication	1,03,314	2,22,171
7.	Housing	2,66,304	1,64,919
8.	Labour Welfare	..	1,600

TABLE XXIX
Different Classes of Tenure Holders

Year	Total Occupied Area	Land Held by *Bhumiswamis*		Land Held by *Sarkari Pattedar*/Govt. Lessees		*Bhoodandhari* Holdings	
		Area	Revenue Assessed	Area	Rent	Area	Revenue
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	(Acres)	(Acres)	(Rs.)	(Acres)	(Rs.)	(Acres)	(Rs.)
1957-58	11,94,670	3,76,943	4,22,182	549	1,502	855	404
1958-59	12,00,459	3,77,786	4,24,151	639	2,399	1,151	676
1959-60	12,02,733	3,77,060	4,23,431	690	N.A.	1,140	738
1960-61	12,04,478	11,91,835	10,09,111	640	2,254	1,305	822
1961-62	12,05,164	11,92,372	10,08,434	683	2,273	1,411	881

Contd. .. ...

Year	Land Held Rent-Free (or Service Land)		Land Held by *Bhumidharis*		Land Held by Sub-Tenants	
	Area	Land Revenue Assessed but not Realised	Area	Rent	Area	Cash Sub-Rent
1	9	10	11	12	13	14
	(Acres)	(Rs.)	(Acres)	(Rs.)	(Acres)	(Rs.)
1957-58	10,698	10,155	8,05,625	5,31,813	22,475	3,01,627
1958-59	10,698	10,155	8,10,275	5,84,674	39,634	4,07,565
1959-60	10,698	10,155	8,13,145	5,85,286	70,339 on cash	5,51,605
					47,963 on *batai* 1/2	*Batai* 1/2
1960-61	10,698	10,155	..	..	39,855 on cash	13,446
					55,327 on *batai* 1/2	*Batai* 1/2
1961-62	10,698	10,155	..	..	63,621 on cash	1,04,789
					1,17,123 on *batai* 1/2	*Batai* 1/2

......Concluded

TABLE XXX
Revenue from Union Excise Duties

(In Thousand Rupees)

S. No	Name of the Commodity	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65
1.	Paper	12,57 5	22,71.4	24,56.8	20,68.2	13,72.2	27,89.1	22,00.8	21,36.6
2.	Cloth	13,89.8	11,92.6	13,84.6	13,95.7	21,87.6	18,19.5	17,57.4	11,25.2
3.	Tobacco	5,59.1	6,66.7	6,90.7	9,84.1	13,44 4	7,88.4	9,75.8	10,40.9
4.	V.N.E. Oil	93.8	1,84.6	2,49.7	8,76.3	54.8	69.2	..	..
5	Art Silk	4,30.9	3.9	30.6	34 5	34.5	.	..	..
6.	Power Looms	1.4	3.8	4.0	4.3		.	..	..
7.	Package Tea	0.3	0.2	0 4	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7

TABLE XXXI

Number of Offences Relating to Hemp Drugs and Opium

Year	Hemp Drugs			Opium					
	Illicit cultivation of *Ganja*	Other offences	Total	Smuggling of opium	Possession of opium in excess of the legal limit	Sale of duty-paid opium without licence	Offences relating to *Madak*	Other offences	Total
1948	..	124	124	66	24	..	4	..	94
1949	..	90	90	42	19	..	2	..	63
1950	1	49	50	51	6	..	2	..	59
1951	..	22	22	33	12	..	..	..	45
1952	1	37	38	36	..	..	..	9	45
1953	..	44	44	19	..	..	..	10	29
1954	..	39	39	14	..	..	4	2	20
1955	..	72	72	17	12	..	1	..	30
1956	..	56	56	9	15	..	4	..	28
1957	1	16	17	28	..	1	..	2	31
1958-59*	..	117	117	3	11	..	..	..	14
1959-60	4	144	148	16	1	..	..	5	22
1960-61	..	77	77	15	..	..	..	..	15
1961-62	..	61	61	17	..	..	..	..	17

*Figures from 1st January, 1958 to the 31st March, 1958 are not available.

TABLE XXXII

Number of Offences Relating to Liquor and Toddy

Year	Smuggling of liquor	Illicit distillation	Illicit manufacture of toddy	Dilution and using false measures	Other offences: By licencees	Other offences: By persons other than licensees	Total
1946	74	90	.	27	61	26	278
1947	51	25	..	..	..	16	92
1948	63	10	6	..	..	..	79
1949	25	15	..	..	..	13	53
1950	6	1	1	..	2	2	12
1951	3	4	..	..	..	3	10
1952	4	27	..	..	11	133	175
1953	6	193	..	..	..	265	464
1954	8	347	..	..	10	156	521
1955	7	310	..	..	8	212	537
1956	—	109	..	8	499	..	616
1957	6	102	..	..	638	29	773
1958-59	..	195	..	..	..	1,008	1,203
1959-60	11	794	..	..	..	801	1,606
1960-61	6	1,076	..	..	..	38	1,120
1961-62	..	32	..	..	..	26	58

1. Majority of the smuggling cases are detected at Khandwa Railway Station.
2. Figures from 1st January, 1958 to 31st March, 1958 are not available.

TABLE XXXIII
Number of Excise Offences

Year		Number of Persons			Amount of Fines Imposed (in Rs)	Amount of Rewards Paid to Informer Catpors, etc. (In Rs.)
		Prosecuted	Convicted	Imprisoned		
1948	..	292	254	54	7,946	1,311
1949	..	214	198	52	16,377	1,654
1950	..	107	90	32	8,140	750
1951	..	91	62	35	1,773	765
1952	..	283	195	31	7,642	596
1953	..	573	443	31	11,248	1,101
1954	..	597	475	32	14,125	2,339
1955	..	655	526	55	16,351	1,858
1956	..	700	559	48	13,923	3,488
1957	..	753	637	33	15,810	..
1958-59	..	1,338	1,101	14	25,466	341
1959-60	..	1,984	1,602	31	4,995	3,500
1960-61	..	1,132	964	19	23,115	1,654
1961-62	..	1,117	995	133	13,503	3,266

APPENDIX—B—I

List of Important Fairs

Sl. No.	Place where fair is held	When held: Hindi month	When held: English month	Local religious or other occasion of fair	Duration of the fair (in days)	Average total attendance	Who manages the fair
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
			1 KHANDWA TAHSIL				
1.	Ahmedpur	Chaitra Sudi 12	March/April	Singhaji Fair	5	5,000	Gram Panchayat
2.	Khandwa	Asadha *Sudi* 9-15	June/July	Ram Saptah Fair	7	5,000	Mahant of the Temple
3.	Boregaon	Kartika *Sudi* 14-15	October/November	Bagheshwari Devi	2	1,000	Janapada Sabha, Khandwa
4.	Mandhata	Kartika *Sudi* 11	October/November	Kartiki Fair	7	2,00,000	Janapada Sabha, Khandwa
5.	Punasa	Agrahyana *Sudi* 15	November December	Kalsan Devi Fair	2	N.A.	Gram Panchayat
6.	Kapuria	Agrahyna *Sudi* 15	November/December	Brahmagir Mela	2	5,000	Local people
7.	Mandhata	Phalguna *Badi* 13-15	February/March	Maha Shivratri	3	30,000	Janapada Sabha, Khandwa
8.	Rustampur	Phalguna *Badi* 13-15	February/March	Bagheshwari Devi Fair	3	1,000	Gram Panchayat
			2 HARSUD TAHSIL				
1.	Dhamdi	Chaitra	March/April	Megha Nath ka Mela	1	500	Ramsinghi Banjara
2.	Piplya Singaji	Asvina	September/October	Singhaji Mela	10	40,000/ 50,000	Janapada Sabha, Harsud
3.	Chhanera	No certain date	October/November	Bukharadas Bada	7	5,000/ 6,000	Local people
4.	Piplya	No certain date	January/February	Sant Bukhardas Baba	5	2,000	Janapada Sabha, Harsud

Contd........

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
5.	Malgaon	No certain date	January	Data Saheb ka Mela	7	25,000	Rao Bhimsingh
6.	Charkheda	No certain date	February	Maurang Swami Mela	7	500	Bhagwandas Brahmachari
				3 BURHANPUR TAHSIL			
1.	Deo Talai	Chaitra *Sudi* 15	March/April	Hanumanji *ka* Mela	1	4,000	Local people
2.	Ichhapur	Chaitra *Sudi* 13-15	March/April	Ichha Devi *ka* Mela	3	8.000	Local people
3.	Shahpur	Vaisakha	April/May	Ram Navmi	1	[illegible],000	Local people
4.	Mahalgurara	Asvina *Badi* 3	September/October	Mahalgurara Fair	1	7,000	Village people
5.	Burhanpur	Asvin *Sudi* 1-15	September/October	Balaji Mela	15	10,000	Local people
6.	Bodaldi	Agrahyana *Sudi* [illegible]	November/December	Bajrangbali Fair	1	7,000	Village people
7.	Burhanpur	Pausa *Badi* 4	December/January	Ganpati Mela	1	1,500	Local people
8.	Lokhandiya	Pausa *Sudi* 15	December/January	Moti Mata Fair	1	5,000	Local people
9.	Ubhadgaon/ Aimagird	Pausa *Sudi* 15	December/January	Robhelya Hanuman Fair	1	500	Local people

Contd........

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
10.	Sukta Khurd	Magha *Sudi* 5-15	January/February	Shiv Baba Fair	1	1,000	Local people
11.	Burhanpur	Magha *Sudi* 4-5	January/February	Gandhi Mela	2	4,000	Local people
12.	Mohangarh	Magha *Sudi* 15	January/February	Hanumanji *ka* Mela	1	3,000	Local people
13	Samali	Magha *Sudi* 15	January/February	Hanumanji *ka* Mela	1	1,500	Local people
14.	Jamunia	Phalguna *Badi* 8	February/March	Shree Ramji Mela	1	2,000	Local people
15	Siwal	Phalguna *Badi* 13-14	February/March	Shivratri	2	2,000	Local people
16.	Dhar Belthad	Phalguna	February/March	Data Saheb Malak	3	1,000	Local people
17.	Burhanpur	--	--	Shab vali urs	1	1,000	Local people
18.	Rahipura	No certain date	..	Shabe-barat-Buhranud-din	1	1,000	Local people
19.	Khamkar	--	..	Khwaja Chalni Shab-Chisti *urs*	1	2,000	Village people
				Shivji *ka* Mela	3	2,500	Local people

Source:—Superintendent of Police, East Nimar (Khandwa)

........Concluded.

TABLE II
List of *Dharmashalas*, Rest Houses and Dak Bungalows

Place	Nature of Accommodation		Road	Situation
Mortakka	*Dharmashala*	1	Indore-Khandwa Road	In 38th mile
	Forest Rest House	1		
Mandhata	*Dharmashala*	3	On Island in Mandhata village	..
Sidhhawarkut Hill	*Dharmashala*	1	North bank of bifurcated stream of Narmada	..
Khandwa	1. Circuit House		Civil lines	
	2. Rest House		—do—	
	3. *Dharmashala*		Opposite Railway station. Others in the heart of town.	
Asir	Rest House	1	Khandwa-Burhanpur Road	In 31st mile
	Dharmashala	1	—do—	—do—
Chandni	Forest Rest House	1	Asir-Chandni Road	—do—
Burhanpur	Rest House	1	Burhanpur-Amravati Road	In 2nd mile
Khanknar	—do—	1	—do—	In 27th mile
Raitalai	—do—	1	—do—	In 37th mile
Ashapur	Forest Rest House	1	Khandwa-Harsud Road	In 26th mile
Harsud	Rest House	1	—do—	In 37th mile
Raldi	Forest Rest House	1	Harsud-Hoshangabad	..
Punasa	Forest Rest House	1	In village (for visitors to falls)	In 38th mile

TABLE III
List of Post Offices, Telegraph and Public Call Offices

S. No.	Name	Type of Office	Whether telegraph and telephone facilities also exist
1	2	3	4
1	Khandwa	Head Office	T. O., P. C. O.
2.	Ahmedpur-Khaigaon	Branch Office	
3	Amulla	,,	
4	Badgaon Gujar	,,	
5.	Badgaon Mali	,,	
6	Bagmar	,,	
7.	Balwada	,,	
8	Barur	,,	
9.	Bhagwanpura	,,	
10	Bhakrada	,,	
11	Bhamgarh	,,	
12.	Bhojakhedi	,,	
13	Borgaon	,,	
14.	Borgaon Khurd	,,	
15	Chhegaon Makhan	,,	
16.	Chhirwel	,,	
17	Deola	,,	
18	Deolikalan	,,	
19	Dongaon	,,	
20.	Dondwada	,,	
21.	Dongargaon	,,	
22.	Gudikhera	,,	
23.	Jaswadi	,,	
24	Jawar	,,	
25.	Kharkalan	,,	
26	Khedi	,,	
27.	Khirala	,,	
28.	Kohdar	,,	
29.	Kumthi	,,	
30.	Mandhata-Onkarji	,,	
31.	Mordad	,,	
32.	Mortakka	,,	

1	2	3	4
33.	Padliya	Branch Office	
34.	Piplod	,,	
35.	Pipalaya Tahar	,,	
36.	Pokharkalan	,,	
37.	Rustampur	,,	
38.	Sihada	,,	
39.	Singot	,,	
40.	Sirpur	,,	
41.	Sirra	,,	
42.	Surgaon Joshi	,,	
43.	Taklikalan	,,	
44	Thapna	,,	
45.	Bir	Sub-Office	T. O.
46.	Kolgaon	Branch Office	
47.	Punasa	,,	
48.	Rangaon	,,	
49.	Sahejla	,,	
50.	Selda	,,	

APPENDIX B-IV
Conversion Table

1. WEIGHTS

Table

10 milligrams (mg)	=1 centigram
10 centigrams	=1 decigram
10 decigrams	=1 gram (1 g=1,000 mg)
10 grams	=1 dekagram
10 dekagrams	=1 hectogram
10 hectograms	=1 kilogram (1 kg=1,000 g)
10 kilograms	=1 myriagram
10 myriagrams	=1 quintal
10 quintals	=1 metric tonne (1 tonne=1000kg)

From Old Units to New Units

1 Tola	=11.66 grams
1 Chhatak	=58.32 „
1 Seer	=933.10 „
1 Maund	=37.32 kg.
1 Grain	=0.0648 gram
1 Ounce	=28.35 grams
1 Pound	=453.59 „ =.45359 kg.
1 Quarter	=12 706 kg.
1 Handerweight	=50.80 kg.
1 Ton	=1016.05 kg.

From New Units to Old Units

1 Gram	=0.085735 tola =15.4324 grains =0.0352740 ounce
1 Kilogram	=1.07169 seer =2.20462 lbs.
1 Quintal	=2.67923 maunds =220.46 lbs.
1 Metric tonne	=26.7923 maunds =0 9842 ton

II LENGTH

Table

10 millimetres (mm)	=1 centimetre (cm)
10 centimetres	=1 decimetre
10 decimetres	=1 metre (1m=100 cms=1000mm)
10 metres	=1 dekametre
10 dekametres	=1 hectometre
10 hectometres	=1 kilometre (1 km=1,000 m.)

From Old Units to New Units

1 inch	=2.54 cms. =25.4 mms. =0.0254 m.
1 foot	=30 48 cms. =0.3048 m
1 yard	=91.44 cms. =0.9144 m.
1 furlong	=201.168 m.

1 mile	=1.609344 km. =1609.344 m.
1 chain	=20.1168 m.

From New Units to Old Units

1 mm.	=0.0394 inch
1 cm.	=0.393701 inch
1 decimetre	=3.937 inch
1 m.	=1.09361 yds. =3.28084 feet =39.3701 inches =0.0497097 chain =0.00497097 furlong
1 hectometre	=0.062173 mile
1 kilometre (km)	=0.62137 mile

III CAPACITY

Table

10 millilitres (ml)	=1 centilitre
10 centilitres	=1 decilitre
10 decilitres	=1 litre (1 L=1000 ml.)
10 litres (L)	=1 dekalitre
10 dekalitres	=1 hectolitre
10 hectolitres	=1 kilolitre

From Old Units to New Units

1 ounce	=28 ml (to the nearest ml.)
1 gill	=142 ml (—do—)
1 pint	=568 ml (—do—) =0.56825 (L)
1 quart	=1 litre and 136 ml. (—do—) =1.13649 (L)
1 gallon	=4.54596 (L)
1 liquid seer	=940 ml (to the nearest 10 ml)

From New Units to Old Units

1 litre	=1.75980 pints =0.87990 quart =0.219975 gallon =1.1 liquid seer—(Approx) =35 liquid ounces (—do—) =1000.028 cubic centimetres =85.735 tolas of pure water =61 025 cubic inches =1.000028 cubic decimetres
1 kilolitre	=1.000028 cubic metres

IV VOLUME

Table

1000 cubic millimetres	=1 cubic centimetre
1000 cubic centimetres	=1 cubic decimetre
1000 cubic decimetres	=1 cubic metre

From Old Units to New Units

1 cubic inch	=16.3871 cubic centimetres
1 cubic foot	=28.3168 cubic decimetres =28.316 litres
1 cubic yard	=0.76455 cubic metre
1 gallon	=0.00454609 cubic metre =4.5496 litres =4.54609 cubic decimetres
1 ounce	=28.4132 cubic centimetres
1 gill	=142.066 cubic centimetres
1 pint	=568.2440 cubic centimetres =0.56825 litre
1 quart	=1.1365 litres*
1 litre	=1000.028 cubic centimetres =1.000028 cubic decimetres

From New Units to Old Units

1 cubic centimetre	=0.061024 cubic inch =0 0070390 gill =0.0351949 ounce
1 cubic decimetre	=0.0353147 cubic foot =0.219969 gallon =0.99997 litre
1 cubic metre	=35 315 cubic foot =1.30795 cubic yard =219.969 gallon =0.99997 kilolitre

V AREA

Table

100 square millimetres	=1 square centimetre
100 square centimetres	=1 square decimetre
100 square decimitres	=1 sq.metre(1sq.m =10,000 sq.cm.)
100 square metres	=1 are or 1 sq. dekametre
100 ares	=1 hectare of 1 sq hectometre (1 hectare (ha)—10,000 sq m.)
100 hectares	=1 square kilometre

From Old Units to New Units

1 sq. inch	=6.4516 sq. cm. =0.00064516 sq. m.
1 sq. foot	=929.03 sq. cm. =0.092903 sq. m. =9 2903 sq. decimetres
1 sq. yard	=0.83613 sq. metre =0.0083613 are
1 cent	=40.4686 sq. metres
1 sq. chain	=404.686 sq. metres
1 acres (4840 sq. Yds or 10 sq. chains)	=0.404686 hectare =40.4686 ares
1 sq. mile (640 acres)	=258.999 hectares =2 58999 sq. kilometres

From New Units to Old Units

1 square cm.	=0.155000 sq. inch
1 sq. metre	=1550.00 sq. inch =10.7639 sq. foot =1.19599 sq. yard
1 are	=119.599 sq. yard =0.0247105 acres
1 hectare	=2.47105 acres
1 sq. kilometre	=0.386101 sq. mile

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